

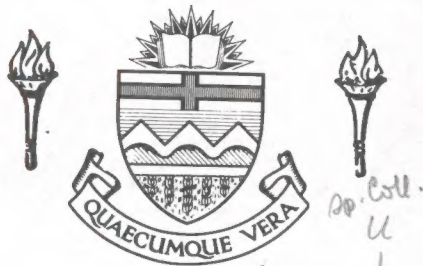


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1936

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Dear Sir:

It is with pleasure that we are again placing in your hands a copy of our Annual Journal, which contains an account of the Institute's activities during 1936. It is felt that all members will be kept well posted in our activities by a perusal of the same.

Your Directors desire to point out that the publication of the Journal is only made possible through the kindness of the many business firms who have purchased advertising space in the Journal, and your Directors suggest that as far as possible, all members remember these firms when making their purchases from time to time.

Similar arrangements have been entered into with the Garrison Officers' Mess Committee for the year 1937 as were arrived at last year. The Institute pays to the Mess a per capita fee for each member who, in turn, becomes an associate member of the Mess and has the privilege of using the Library, Reading Room, Billiard Room, etc. The Mess has recently been substantially enlarged and the accommodation is now ample for all purposes. The Garrison Officers' Mess is open each evening from 7.30 p.m. to 11 p.m., with the exception of Sunday, and is also open on Saturday evenings for the use of the members and their wives during the winter season. Your Directors feel that you will profit and enjoy taking advantage of the full privileges of the Mess which are extended to you under this arrangement.

Naturally the Mess Committee desires to receive early in the year, as large a proportion of dues as possible, so that they may budget their expenses and know whether they are in a position to add further features for your comfort. As the Institute remits from time to time on receipt of payment from members, it is desirable that dues be paid promptly. This action is also necessary in order to finance the publication of the Journal which runs into a considerable sum, until revenue is received from advertisers.

Your Directors, therefore, urge all members who have not already done so, to remit their dues as soon as possible.

As this is Coronation Year, your Directors are most desirous that our activities should be most successful, and in consequence if you have some friend who is eligible for membership in the Institute, we would appreciate your best efforts to have him become a member.

Your Directors will also appreciate your suggestions with respect to any improvement of the Journal, the names of likely speakers to address the Institute, and generally any ideas you may have pertaining to the advancement of the Institute.

Yours faithfully,

Norman D. Dingle, Lt.-Colonel,

President.



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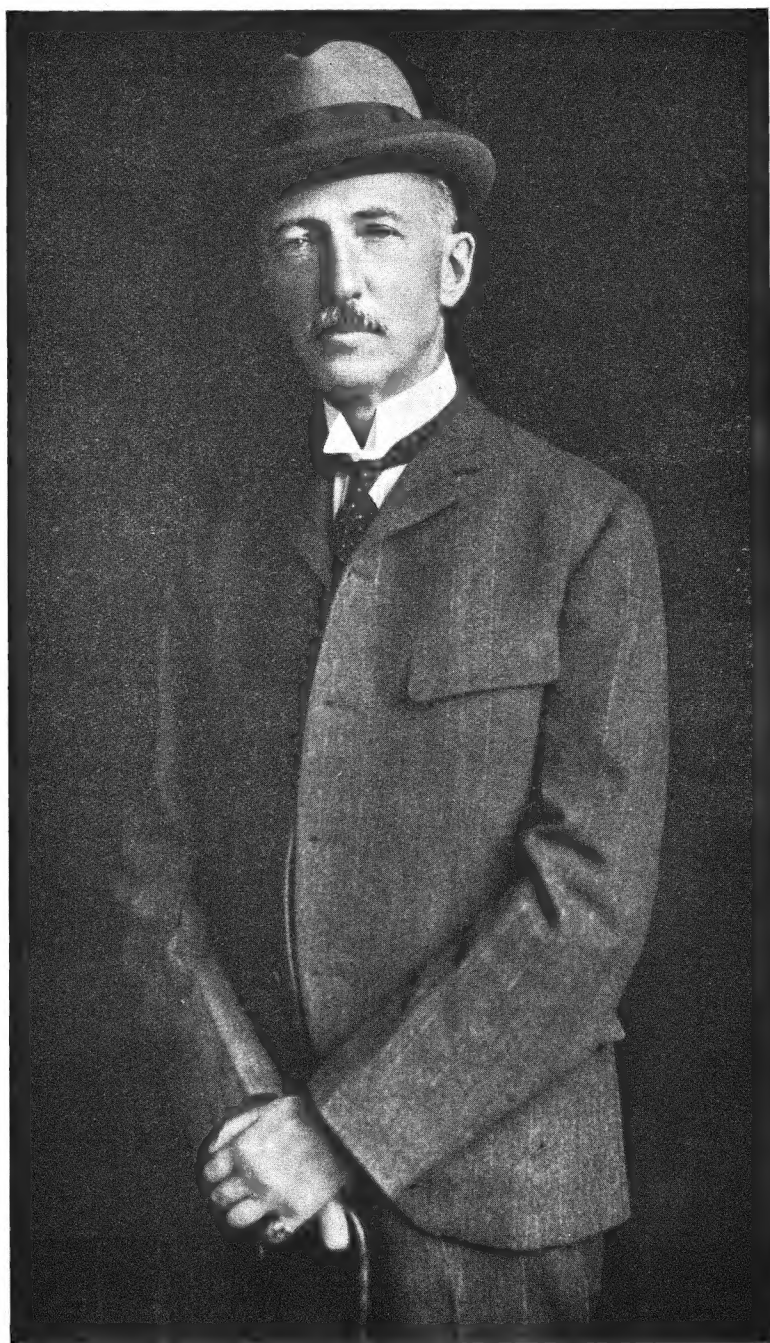
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LIEUT. COL. THE HONOURABLE P. C. H. PRIMROSE

His Honour Philip Carteret Hill Primrose

Since the last issue of The Journal it has been the pleasure of the Alberta Military Institute to congratulate Lieutenant-Colonel the Hon. P. C. H. Primrose on his appointment as Lieutenant-Governor of the Province. Only a few months later members of the Institute and others of Colonel Primrose's brother-officers were left mourning his loss by death.

Appointed on October 1 as the Sovereign's representative in Alberta, Colonel Primrose was laid low with illness shortly after so that virtually he was never able to officiate at any official function.

A native of Pictou, Nova Scotia, where he was born October 23, 1864, Colonel Primrose came West to join the North-West Mounted Police upon his graduation from R.C.M. and was an inspector at the depot in Regina in the early days of the North-West Rebellion.

After his retirement from the police, in whose ranks he saw service also in the Yukon during the gold "rush" of '98, he served twenty years as Police Magistrate in Edmonton before his appointment as Lieutenant-Governor of Alberta.

1936 Annual Journal
of
THE ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE
(Incorporated)
CALGARY, ALBERTA

MAJOR A. C. BALLANTINE, Editor
LIEUT. M. H. ROBINSON, Advertising Manager

Seventeenth Year

December, 1936

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The Maintenance of Neutrality

*By Major-General the Honourable W. A. Griesbach, C.B., C.M.G.,
D.S.O., V.D.*

THE object of maintaining neutrality is threefold. In the first place, the country which maintains neutrality supports international law and the comity of nations. It takes its place as a full-grown nation able to play its part. Capacity and willingness to maintain neutrality are practical contributions to the maintenance of peace and public order. Finally, the maintenance of neutrality is the supreme duty of a sovereign state. It is the test of sovereignty. The rules governing neutrality are to be found in international law and in the Hague Convention of 1907.

International law and such conventions stand between nations as a barrier to the barbarism that preceded it. As you know, international law is not a statute law but is based upon precedents and principles which are more or less commonly accepted. The rules particularly applicable are as follows.

A belligerent warship may not leave a neutral port or roadstead until twenty-four hours after the departure of a merchant ship, which flies the flag of an adversary.

Similarly, twenty-four hours must elapse after the departure of belligerent warships.

Failure to enforce neutrality is a breach of neutrality.

A belligerent warship which enters a neutral harbour must depart therefrom within twenty-four hours. If such belligerent warship does not leave the neutral harbour when ordered to do so, the neutral power must disarm such ship and intern the crew for the duration of the war.

If a neutral power does not expel a belligerent warship within the time stated, a warship of the other belligerent power may enter the neutral harbour and destroy its enemy, this to prevent the breach of neutrality from operating to its disadvantage. There is a provision that a belligerent warship, which comes into a neutral harbour owing to stress of weather, may effect repairs which may make her seaworthy but she is not permitted to make herself warworthy.

* * * * *

SOVEREIGN states which cannot and will not defend their neutrality are a menace to the peace of the world and are faithless to the civilization in which they live.

A neutral state must not permit any belligerent to use its coasts and waterways for espionage, observations, communication and the like.

A neutral state which permits a breach of neutrality is liable in damages to the injured state, as witness the Alabama case.

Consider the case of war between United States and Japan. In a straight line our British Columbia coast line is about 700 miles but, following the innumerable indentations of the coast, the coast line runs into many thousands. Vancouver Island, the Mainland, Queen Charlotte Islands, have hundreds, indeed thousands, of bays and harbours, many of them not under observation; belligerent vessels could occupy some of them for several weeks without our knowing about it, but this lack of knowledge is no excuse. It may be assumed that certainly one of the belligerents, if not both, would endeavor to use our territory and territorial waters for illegal purposes. We must at all times be ready and able to exercise the necessary force to avoid breaches of neutrality. Our responsible officers must be supplied with the necessary force and they must act instantly.

* * * * *

TWO POINTS immediately arise. What have we at the moment in the way of men and materials to meet this situation and, secondly, what do we require?

We shall shortly have four modern destroyers carrying 4.7 guns, one or two trawlers and mine sweepers. This is our whole naval force now divided between two coasts, the Atlantic and the Pacific. At the moment our air service is negligible and the only fortified post we have is at Esquimalt, armed with two 9.2 guns in open and well-known emplacement which were taken over by Canada from the British authorities in 1906, or thereabouts. These forces are totally inadequate to the task. What we require is an extensively increased naval force, more destroyers, a number of submarines, several heavy cruisers and an air force consisting of scouting planes, heavy bombers and probably some fighters. We also need a wireless establishment that will reasonably cover the coast line with adequate observation stations. We require as well the fortification of several points on the mainland and probably Queen Charlotte Islands. The object of this establishment is, first, intelligence, to locate the belligerent vessel or land party which is breaking our neutrality. Secondly, quick communication; thirdly, the arrival at the threatened point of sufficient land, sea and air force to enforce the law.

The danger which threatens us is mainly the following: The United States would have a line of communication from the home territory westward of Vancouver Island to Alaska and the Aleutian Islands. Japanese submarines based on Canadian coastal waters, probably only a few in number, would attempt to break up this line

of communication. Indeed it is conceivable that the Japanese might never attempt such a course but if any mishap befell an American ship on this course, such as an ammunition explosion or the blowing up of a boiler or any incident of that sort, the press of the United States would immediately claim that the affair was caused by a Japanese attack based on Canadian territory and a demand would be made that the American Government seize the coast of Canada to put an end to an intolerable situation. Our answer to that situation cannot be simply that we strongly disapprove of the Japanese action, either actual or threatened. That will not be good enough. We must be able to convince the United States, not only have we the will to maintain neutrality but also the means to do so, and our lack of means would determine the whole matter.

* * * * *

A FURTHER danger lies in the fact that the belligerents themselves engage in breaches of neutrality as far as they dare to gain some advantage or to prevent their enemy from getting advantage and the unfortunate fact is that when a naval or military officer can "put something over" and "get away with it", he may be officially rebuked by his own government but privately is rewarded by promotion or appointment. Thus, the commander of the belligerent warship, which puts into a neutral harbour to escape from a stronger enemy may delay his departure unduly and bluff the neutral power. He may then take advantage of night or bad weather and escape from the neutral harbour and finally bring his ship safely home. He has been guilty of distinct breaches of neutrality and his government may apologize for it but it is well understood in the naval and military service that such an officer has to show on the credit side a saving of a valuable unit to his country for the further prosecution of war. The only answer to this sort of thing is the immediate arrival in overwhelming strength of neutral forces whose capacity and determination is well known and who proceed to enforce the law even if it necessitates the sinking of such belligerent warship.

Military and naval history is full of incidents illustrating the operation of the rules above mentioned of preventive measures such as the destruction of the Danish fleet by the British fleet in 1805, when both nations were at peace; this to prevent the Danish fleet from falling into the hands of Napoleon. There is the destruction of the German cruiser "Dresden" in 1915 in a Chilean harbour by the British warships "Kent" and "Glasgow". There is the destruction of a Russian destroyer in a Chinese port by Japanese warships. In both these latter cases the neutral power in question was unwilling or unable to maintain neutrality.

The British Soldier

By Lieut.-Col. C. W. Devey

THE BRITISH soldier is a mixture of many and varied fighting races. When in B.C. 54 the Roman, Julius Caesar, landed in Britain he found tribes of Kelts, who had themselves displaced a more primitive people.

For 450 years Britain was part of the Roman Empire, held in subjugation by Roman garrisons, and then abandoned.

In 449 came far fiercer invaders; the Saxons and Angles, followed some four centuries later by equally fierce Danes.

In 1066 William of Normandy invaded and conquered Britain. This was the last occasion a foreign race has invaded the country. The battle of Hastings may be said to have seen the extermination of the first British standing army. The Danish king Canute had established a small army of "house carles" who were professional soldiers. These were retained to some extent by his successors—the Anglo-Saxon kings, one of whom was Harold.

* * * * *

IN OLDEN days every man, between the ages of 16 and 60, was expected to turn out for the defence of his country, and bring certain arms with him, either horse or foot according to his circumstances.

The Normans introduced the continental system of binding up the tenure of land with obligations of military service. This system was not particularly efficient, as there quickly arose the practice of landholders contracting with leaders to produce a certain number of paid armed men.

England used to be called the home of the soldier, as the expression arose from the hired fighting men receiving *solde*, *solidus*—the coin for which the "s" in L.s.d. stands. In those days men went to war to make something out of it; the King to acquire new territory, and his followers anything they could lay their hands on.

The richer of these fighting men could afford horses and better armour than the poorer soldier, and were known as men-at-arms. Armed with lance, sword and battle axe they were very formidable and for a long time had things their own way, until the Swiss hit upon the idea of forming solid squares of infantry armed with 18-foot pikes to withstand the assaults of these mounted men.

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The English soon afterwards, brought the foreign men-at-arms to utter shame, for, by the fourteenth century, the English bowman had come into being. These bowmen operated in loose formation on the flanks of dismounted men-at-arms and shot, not at their heavily armoured opponents, but at the less protected chargers. The result was that this once formidable cavalry was turned into a mob of runaway horses, many of which undoubtedly discharged their riders, who, encumbered with their heavy armour, were of little use on foot unless in large numbers in close formation.

Other nations quickly copied this method and infantry began to be cultivated for its own sake.

Mercenary bands of professional soldiers, who would accept contracts to fight for or against anyone, grew up, chiefly in Germany, Switzerland and Italy. These bands were known as free companies and fought mainly for plunder and the ransom of wealthy prisoners. The late Sir Arthur Conan Doyle's "White Company" is one of the best fictional narratives of the activities of this sort of mercenary.

* * * * *

AT ABOUT the beginning of the sixteenth century, it dawned upon kings that companies raised from their own subjects would be more loyal, and no more expensive, than hired foreigners. It was soon discovered that companies of uniform strength were more convenient than the hitherto unwieldy bands whose strength was largely determined by the leader's popularity or the inducement he offered.

The next step was to collect these companies into groups under the rule or **regiment** of a single Officer called the Colonel.

* * * * *

TO DISTINGUISH friend from foe soldiers were provided with a coat of uniform colour. This custom seems to have grown up gradually. Still more important was uniformity of armament. About 1531 a great step forward was made in hand firearms. The matchlock was invented and a stock added so that it could be held steadily. Owing to the poor quality of the powder of those days a very long barrel was necessary to allow of complete combustion. This made the addition of a rest for the barrel a necessity.

* * * * *

IN 1485 Henry VII formed a Royal Bodyguard, which is still with us in the Yeomen of the Guard. In 1537 The Honourable Artillery Company was founded and still exists, as a Territorial unit, under the same title, to the present day.

In the year 1572 the first English volunteers went to Holland to help the Dutch in their battle for independence against Spain.

As time went on a great many English took service with foreign armies. The novel "Micah Clarke" is one dealing with the adventures of such Volunteers.

* * * * *

IN 1645, after the strife between Charles and his Parliament, the latter body decided that it must have a permanent force, regularly paid, properly trained and disciplined. Oliver Cromwell's Regiment of Horse was the example upon which this force was based.

The "New Model" Army, as it was termed, consisted of 11 regiments of horse and six troops of 100 men, one regiment of dragoons made up of ten companies, also 100 strong, and twelve regiments of infantry each of ten companies of 120 men. An artillery train, to which was attached two additional regiments of infantry, formed the nucleus of this force. The whole of the army, for the first time in history, was dressed in scarlet, with facings of varying colours.

To quote Sir Charles Firth: "The army, when its rule came to an end, had propagated democratic principles and imposed religious freedom with musket and pike, it had initiated many interesting experiments and drawn up four constitutions, but, for the present, all that it had bequeathed to political life was a rooted aversion to standing armies and an abiding dread of military rule." And Sir John Fortescue: "It took its dissolution quietly, bowed down under the weight of it's own unpopularity, and both officers and men settled

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down to the life of ordinary citizens. The incident is strangely characteristic of the English soldier's sober and cheerful acceptance of facts".

Monck's Regiment of Foot, which was largely responsible for the Restoration, was the only one of the "New Model" regiments to escape being disbanded, and still survives as the Coldstream Guards.

* * * * *

EARLY IN 1661 an insurrection in London showed the need for an armed force to protect the King and his capital. A regiment of foot guards was raised from Royalists, also a regiment of horse and two troops of Life Guards. These regiments still remain in the Grenadiers, Life Guards and the Blues.

A regiment of Scots from the French service became the Royal Scots and two regiments required for the garrison at Tangier, one of horse and one of foot, became the Royals and Queens respectively.

When war was declared against Holland in 1665, an English regiment, in the service of the Dutch, refused to fight against their own countrymen, and were received into the British service, where they still remain as the Buffs.

* * * * *

UP TO THE beginning of the 19th century Britain was in a more or less continuous state of war—Monmouth's rebellion, the War of the Spanish Succession, the Seven Years War, the campaigns for the American colonies, the conquest of India, the French Revolution and the Napoleonic wars. In 1885 the British troops—some 24,000—hitherto in the employ of the East India Company, were absorbed into the Crown forces.

* * * * *

THAT TYPE of man was it who fought our battles during this period of some century and a half?

In the "New Model" the men were stern, sober and of high moral tone; they served under a strict discipline, and were well trained and efficient.

In the early regiments of the standing army the men were also of a good type, but it was not an army so much as a collection of regiments, owned by their colonels.

The Tangier Regiments were fierce and brutal men, when first they returned to England. Men were enlisted for life to save the cost of replacement, and were retained in the ranks as long as they could stand. They paid, out of stoppages from their wages, for their food, clothing and an eventual right to claim a haven in Chelsea hospital.

There were no barracks, as we know them, men were billeted in ale houses at a fixed tariff, where, like any other labouring man, they paid for their board, lodging and clothing out of their pay; but they were supplied with their arms—the tools of their trade.

There was no uniformity of drill, although colonels were obliged to dress their men according to a uniform pattern.

Their arms consisted of musket, bayonet and hand grenade; their duty was to man the fleet and garrison fortresses.

* * * * *

IN THE West Indies and in India the conditions were such that the first white troops died by the thousands. In New York, during the winter, men frequently died of cold, as there were no ale houses in which they could seek shelter. Consequently it was very unwillingly that men went abroad, except on active service. The first garrisons sent to Minorca, Gibraltar and Arcadia suffered equally from exposure, so that it was small wonder that foreign service in time of peace was loathed and dreaded. Wholesale desertions were frequent when battalions were warned for embarkation. However, when battalions, by some means or another, were shipped off and arrived at their destination they quickly settled down, usually to remain unrelieved for the best part of a generation. Officers and men accommodated themselves and somehow made the best of it. Considering that the men were drawn from the dregs of the population, they were reasonably contented and happy. The essential quality of the British soldier—good nature—asserted itself, and except when in their cups, they lived on friendly terms with the inhabitants.

It was long before the status, and, with the status, the character, of the private soldier showed any marked improvement. A passion for alcohol afflicted all classes, yet there was improvement, gradual but steady. The making of roads in the Highlands, under the supervision of such careful and considerate officers as Wolfe did more than any one thing to bring officers and men together. In 1760 a sergeant records with positive pain how the officers, before Quebec, worked on the guns with the men. After Saratoga the soldiers, when separated from their officers, parted in tears.

The status of the soldier again sank owing to the policy of Pitt, who would not give him enough pay to keep him alive.

* * * * *

THESE conditions continued until the Duke of York re-established discipline and order. In 1797, in consequence of a mutiny in the Navy, an increase of pay was granted in a moment of panic.

In 1793 the building of barracks commenced and was gradually extended until, eventually, all soldiers were transferred to them from their old billets, the ale houses. These barracks, by modern standards, were bad; men were very much overcrowded and comfort

and conveniences of the barest. They did, however, keep the men together, which was to the advantage of discipline, which, at this time, was still maintained by the lash.

The Duke of Wellington was responsible for the introduction of a higher grade of N.C.O., and upon his recommendation came into being the Troop Sergeant Major and the Infantry Colour-Sergeant.

The Duke of York established the penny post between England and Flanders, and thus enabled men serving in that theatre of war to communicate with their families. He also insisted that the names of men becoming casualties be sent home, thus relieving, to a great extent, the strain of uncertainty from relatives and families of soldiers. The Duke of York's School, for the sons of soldiers, was founded by him, as was also the Royal Military College.

* * * * *

THE INCESSANT calls upon the Army, the breakdown of all administrative services in the Crimea and the uneasy feeling that there was no reserve behind the troops of the line, had impressed successive governments with the military insecurity of England.

The Government of 1870 introduced a short period of service; six years with the colours and six with the reserve. This entailed the risk of not having seasoned men for foreign service, as most men were almost immediately drafted to India, which was really the home of the British Army. This was brought about largely by the dearth of old soldiers, during a period of comparative economic prosperity in England. The odour of the Army at this time was such that the first batch of reservists were not received with much favour by the civilian population. They found it difficult to obtain employment, and many were forced to beg on the streets of the towns and villages.

Later the period of service was changed to seven or eight years with the colours and five or four with the reserve.

In 1881 the two battalions of infantry regiments were made permanent under territorial designations. To these pairs their County Militia and Volunteers were affiliated as additional battalions, a condition which exists at the present day.

* * * * *

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TO RECAPITULATE the various influences which have produced our present Army:—

“First: more than two centuries of national hostility to any organized forces, largely engendered by Cromwell’s military rule. It was national and shared by all sorts and conditions of men. It vented itself in neglect and scorn of the people at large; families looked upon a son who “went” for a soldier as a lost soul.

“Secondly each regiment was, as has been said, a little separate congregation with its Holy of Holies and sacred ark of the covenant—its colours. Even in time of peace men would risk being burnt alive—as in the “Sarah Sands”—or would allow their barracks to be blown down over their heads—as in Dominica in 1806—for the safety of their colours. If zeal faltered in one such congregation, it waxed mighty in others, and thus the faith which might have perished in a single whole was upheld in many parts.

“In character and moral tone this proprietary army was far inferior to Cromwell’s, yet Cromwell’s could never have survived the trials of its successor. It would have mutinied in indignation or dissolved itself in despair.

“Last we come to the joint reaction of these influences on the British character. The Briton never reasons out things logically. He ignores principles but he perceives facts and adjusts himself to them. He is slow to passion and has small capacity for hatred. Lastly, he possesses initiative; he has no dread of responsibility, and incidentally, he loves to command; hence, the Officers quietly accepted the popular scorn and the State’s neglect. Without brooding over grievances they sought out remedies for the people’s follies and for the State’s shortcomings, and applied them without further parley, and by sheer patient persistence they forced the State to follow whithersoever they might lead.

“The men took pattern from their officers. On active service, of course, they sometimes reduced them to despair by plunging, after some great fight, into wild orgies of drunkenness and pillage. Such bursts of indiscipline were traditions of the old mercenary bands. Hardship, privation, fatigue, wounds and death, were more than a man could be expected to endure for a penny or two a day; and it was a poor heart that never rejoiced. But, these moments of frenzy past, the British soldier became gentle. He belonged to no military caste, he gave himself no airs of superiority, he knew that at home he was nought and soon found his proper level. The troops that had sacked Badajos marched from the Garonne to the Channel, without exciting a single complaint from the inhabitants.

“The British soldier could not hate his enemies. It was not that he lacked spirit, or would submit to anything. The Government that tried to override his sacred contract with the East India Company, by means of a foolish document called an Act of Parliament, quickly discovered that fact, but it was not in him to bear malice

to a foe in the field. The Burmese had hideously tortured and mutilated captured British soldiers, but, directly the war was over, the soldier took the Burmese to his heart, and they were grieved at his departure. So in New Zealand, he had no vindictive feeling against the Maoris, who had hurled him back discomfited from their fortifications, but when they were compelled to surrender he rushed in to shake hands with so gallant an enemy. He has an extraordinary gift of making himself intelligible to all peoples and nations, in all languages; and although he has entered many lands as a conqueror, there are few that he has not quitted as a friend."—(Fortescue).

* * * * *

THE OLD pre-war type of regular soldier no longer exists. The commencement of this change was apparent after the South African war, and was undoubtedly due largely to the influence of Sir Herbert Smith-Dorrien's period of command at Aldershot. The increase of educational facilities and the change in the habits of the nation also have had a deal to do with producing the present type of soldier.

Every effort is made to provide the soldier, at vocational training centres, with a trade or calling which will facilitate his absorption into civil life. Very complete arrangements exist in all larger stations for recreation and entertainment and leave is granted on a very generous scale.

One characteristic of the British soldier which is outstanding, is his sense of humour under the most discouraging conditions.

Bairnsfather's illustrations graphically portray this side of army life, and there are numberless good stories extant on the subject.

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The Genesis and Legends of the Blackfoot Indians

By Rev. Canon S. H. Middleton, C.E.D., C.St.J., F.R.E.S., B.Sc.

TWO OR THREE years ago, I was asked by several of the officers if I would speak about the Indians of Alberta, but no definite date was set and now that the invitation has become an actuality. I feel that it is like bringing coals to Newcastle to mention Indians, here in Calgary, especially as the site of this city was once sold for a sack of missionary flour.

When driving downtown tonight, I was asked by my old friend, Major Miller, if I had my notes, as he being a clergyman's son, knows the failing of the average parson. It is an occasion, however, when dealing with the Indian question, that I never refer to notes, because I draw my observations from thirty years of hard practical experience spent amongst the largest tribe of Indians in Canada.

I appreciate the fact nevertheless, that I am standing tonight in the presence of many veterans—men who have been in Alberta much longer than I, and who know more about Indians than I do. I see my old friend, Colonel Sanders on the right, and my colleague, John Kemmis of the North Fork, on the left, both of whom are more qualified to deal with this subject than I can ever hope to be. Speaking therefore from a background of so many years experience, anything that I may say will not be tinged with the romance or plot of a story book, but will be given as having received it direct and at first hand from the Indian himself.

I have sat by the hour with the Indians in their teepees and houses; I have listened very patiently to their stories of the happy bygone days; their exploits in warfare; their feuds with other and lesser tribes; the glamorous details of hunting buffalo; the thrilling, and hair raising escapades when scalping the enemy; the courageous exploits of taking captive maidens; to the peans of victory and the melancholy wails of the vanquished. Permeated with all this has been the aroma of their "Kinnikinik", as the "Pipe of Peace" was being passed around the mystic circle, when many a brave would recount his sacrificial deeds at the Sun-Dance. The coming of the Whiteman; the lament of times past, and their groping aspirations expressed in subdued tones for the days to come. During those wearisome yet sometimes thrilling and exciting moments, I tried to be an apt pupil, while the Indian was a ready teacher. It was a time of mutual and reciprocal benefit.

* * * * *

LET ME STATE at the outset that the School of which I am the Headmaster, is the largest Indian School in the Province of Alberta, and is comprised entirely of Blood Indian students. When

speaking about the Bloods in particular, I shall incorporate the whole of the Blackfoot Confederacy in general.

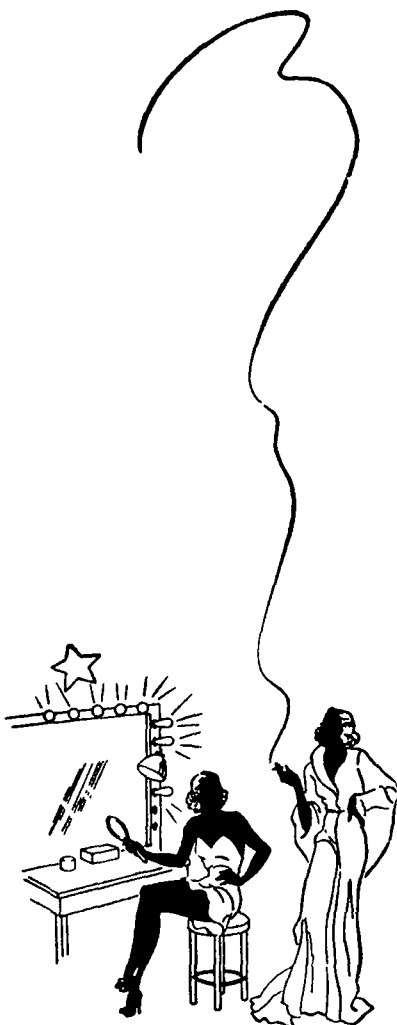
The original Confederacy consisted of the Bloods proper, who always formed the major portion, they now number 1374, and reside on their Reserve which is situated in the south-west corner of the Province, adjacent to the town of Cardston, and covers an area of 570 square miles. The Blackfeet, of whom there are 785, have their Reserve at Gleichen, some sixty miles east of Calgary. The Peigans numbering 448 are located at Brocket, while the South Peigans or Southern Blackfeet, reside immediately south of the International Boundary at Browning, Montana. These four tribes prior to the coming of the Whiteman, formed the original Blackfoot Confederacy. They speak the same language, possess the same cultural background and to all intents and purposes, still retain their unified heritage. In minor cases, like the Cockney of London, and the Yorkshireman of the North, they have a dialectal difference, but once you know the Blackfoot language proper, you can converse with any of the four tribes on a common basis.

Having now made quite clear the geographical position of these tribes, may I revert to their genesis. If you ask an Indian where his ancestors came from, he will unconsciously turn to the north. He cannot explain the reason, other than his inherited tendency. North to him is "Aputosokts" back or behind; South, "Amskapokts", ahead; East, "Pinapokts," down the river; West, "Ometukts," up, following the river to its source. I repeat, that when asked that question, the Indian turns unconsciously to the North.

Cast your mental gaze therefore to the northern part of this continent. You will observe, along the Spence, that at Bering Strait the Old World and the New are separated by a narrow sea passage only, and an elevation of the sea-bed of less than two hundred feet would provide a land bridge at least thirty miles in breadth between the two continents. It is a geological fact that Bering Strait has been formed since the Tertiary period, and that such a land-bridge once existed. By this bridge it is believed, man crossed from Asia to America and its subsequent disappearance confined him to the Western Hemisphere. Place an Indian alongside an Asiatic and you will notice immediately a striking resemblance in their facial characteristics. I would not impute that the Indians of America are or were Asiatics. It is obvious, nevertheless, that such testimony adds to the theory.

* * * * *

IN THE remote past, according to their history, they were held for many centuries in the Northland as captives inhabiting the forests and muskegs of the Slave Lakes and Peace River country. They were literally held in bondage, as the Egyptians held the Israelites. Their captors treated them as slaves—from whence arose the names of Greater and Lesser Slave Lakes. Many historians mention this fact. Alexander Henry, one of the early explorers, when



"He says he likes them 'au naturel'—"
Who doesn't! That's why everybody smokes Sweet Caps!"

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writing of the Blackfoot tribes stated, "The Blackfeet, Bloods and Peigans may be considered under one grand appellation of Slave Indians." Maclean in his "Canadian Savage Folk" uses the same term. Ultimately, however, the captives became so strong that they drove their captors south and east. Then commenced the famous southern migration of the Confederacy, moving as one vast army from forty to fifty thousand strong. They came south, driving the Crows, the Shoshones, the Nez Percés and the Crees before them and laid claim to that vast territory stretching from the Red Deer river in the north, to the Yellowstone in the south, beyond the Saskatchewan in the east, and to the crest of the Rockies in the west. As a proof of their valour, courage and native ability, they successfully held all that enormous area against aggression by enemy tribes, until it was subsequently taken from them by Treaty and peaceable negotiation. How I would have liked to have been with them in that far-off day! That was the "Age of Romance" about which I oftentimes speak.

Just a word in passing about your own Sarcees. When the Blackfeet came south, the Sarcees, originally members of the Beaver Tribe, followed in their train. How they became attached to the Blackfeet is still a matter of conjecture. Possibly it was a case of the stronger succouring the weaker. Yet after all these years of close and intimate contact with their benefactors they still remain a separate and segregated people. They possess an entirely different language from any other tribe, and whilst the Bloods are increasing every year, the Sarcees, unfortunately, are decreasing.

In that long ago, when the Indians were the masters of this vast domain, they had time for leisure, reflection and meditation. They developed intellectually far beyond what we have been led to suppose. In physique they were tall and finely proportioned. Their system of ethics and code of morality was almost Spartan in its rectitude. They were the highest type, physically, mentally and morally of any of the western tribes, and their courage was unquestioned. Such has gained a notoriety which has rendered them the heroes of many a romantic novel. They were intensely religious. No people prayed more earnestly, nor more frequently. In the domestic sphere, they possessed the art of tanning deerskin to a delicate softness, which rendered it a luxurious and delightful raiment, and like the Aztecs of the south they manufactured head-dresses of feather and

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garments trimmed with porcupine work. They also had elaborated a system of picture-writing. In short, the Blackfeet were the most intelligent and advanced of the western tribes, and had their civilization been permitted to proceed unhindered by white aggression, and the recurring inroads of their hereditary enemies, it would probably have developed into something resembling that of the original people of Mexico, without, perhaps, exhibiting the sanguinary fanaticism of that people.

* * * * *

THERE you have the background of the Noble Red Man, as I have known him. Now let others speak on his behalf, if such be necessary. His first contact with the Whiteman was made barely two hundred years ago. How long the Blackfoot Confederacy had ruled these Western plains no one knows. In the spring of 1754 the Blackfeet were masters of themselves, they held their enemies at bay, and were seeking no further worlds to conquer. They were a happy and contented people secure in their own rights, and viewed with complacency their own parochial world. Meanwhile, George the Second was on the throne of England; trouble was brewing in India; Wesley and Whitfield were gaining fame as evangelists. Gentlemen Adventurers of England known as the Hudson's Bay Company were extending their fur-trading empire into the territorial domain of the Blackfeet. These gay soldiers of fortune, carving a path through the wilderness were not to be checked by the mere fiction of limits set by a charter. They followed the rivers to the heights of land and were represented in this instance by Anthony Hendry, the first Englishman to penetrate the Blackfoot country. On June 26, 1754, Hendry accompanied by a party of Assiniboines left New York and set out for unknown territory. For three and a half months he travelled steadily south-west. I will not attempt to describe his journey. On October 14, having arrived at a point somewhere between what is now Medicine Hat and Calgary he saw for the first time, Indians on horseback. Describing the meeting in his "Journal", he relates that four riders came to conduct him to an encampment of three-hundred and twenty-two teepees (of Blackfoot Indians) pitched in two rows. The next day Hendry was invited to pay another visit to the Blackfoot camp. During the pow-wow in which he asked the Chief to allow some of his tribesmen to accompany him on his return journey, the wise old Indian replied that his people were never in want of food, and they wished to retain their independence, they would remain in their own territory. That was almost two hundred years ago, and I can speak from personal experience, that the Indian is just as proud and haughty today. He has lost none of his ancient dignity and demeanour. As a people they have not been conquered, nor are they yet totally absorbed into the body politic of our Canadian life. Hendry described the Blackfeet as a "very kind people," and that they "looked more like Europeans than Indians, they own numerous horses, about 14 hands high, being lively and clean made".

.. After spending the winter with them and travelling in the mean-

time north-west towards what is now Edmonton, a distance of eight to nine hundred miles west of Fort York, he returned to the Fort on June 20th of the following year. To Hendry's profound disgust, he was not again permitted to visit the prairies. In fact, his report was totally discredited. Indians on horseback—forsooth! The Hudson's Bay Factors ridiculed the idea. They had never heard of such a thing. All the Indians they knew came to the Fort in canoes. Apparently the Hudson's Bay officials objected to being told what they did not know. He quit the service in disgust and was retired with a gratuity of twenty pounds—a paltry one hundred dollars—for his expedition. Suppose the Hudson's Bay officials had accepted the statements of Hendry, what a change there might have been in the history of Western Canada!

* * * * *

TWENTY years past before the Blackfeet saw another Whiteman. Matthew Cocking, Englishman, Second Factor at Fort York journeyed westward in 1772. Like Hendry he was accompanied by a party of Assiniboines. Leaving his canoes he struck south for the domain of the Blackfeet, at the foothills of the Rockies, near what is now the International Boundary.

Cocking spent the winter with the Bloods, Blackfeet, Peigans and Sarcees, whom he names—the Confederacy of Waterfall Indians—owing to the numerous cataracts on the upper reaches of the Bow River. All that Hendry had said of the Blackfeet twenty years before, Cocking found to be true. All were riders—men, women and children, the first of the tribes he had yet met where women were not beasts of burden. Interesting and valuable were his discoveries. He reported the Indians as having made earthen pots for cooking utensils, planted tobacco gardens, were very hospitable, and he thought they were more like Europeans than Americans. He found they had recorded their history in drawings on painted buffalo robes.

It is very interesting to me to find that both Hendry and Cocking give the same classification of the Confederacy, consisting of the Bloods, Blackfeet, Peigans and Sarcees, which I mentioned previously, as being given to me by word of mouth from the Indians of yesterday. Much more might be said regarding their early history, but enough has been presented for one to agree with Alexander Hendry, when he said, "The Blackfeet are a superior people", and again with Agnes Laut—"The Blackfeet Indians are the lions of the prairies when sober, and the tigers of the plains when drunk".

During that far-off day when they were monarchs of all they surveyed, there arose an unconscious desire for a stabilised morality and the need of an ethical or lawful standing. During the course of time, probably many centuries, the Blackfeet evolved a political and social organization which has received the commendation of many skilled historians. Several of their stories, legends and myths have an equal standing with the ancient classics, and it is a little startling to see in the story of the Medicine Pipe a close parallel to the classical

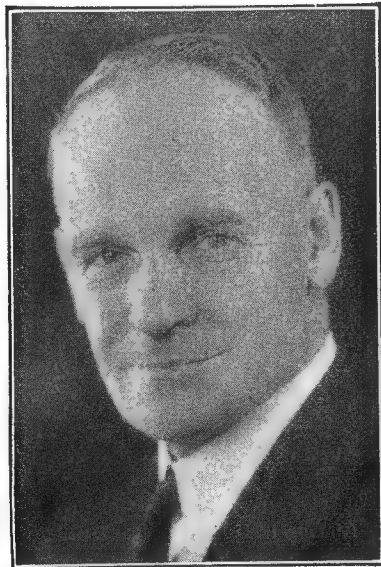
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myth of Orpheus and Eurydice. In another of their stories is an incident which might have been taken bodily from the Odyssey. During my experience amongst the Indians I have been thrilled to listen to similar stories.

Some years ago I was preaching in the Indian tongue about the Ten Commandments. Seated in the congregation were many of the old timers—Yellow Bull—Wesel Fatt—Three Guns—Hind Bull—Mountain Horse, and many others, all children of nature and all nature's gentlemen. During the course of the sermon I noticed several smiling, and thought that probably my Blackfoot was poor or that my grammar might be more or less confused. At the close of the service I asked Yellow Bull what caused him to smile while I was preaching. He replied: "We had to smile." I asked: "Why?" You see I was just commencing my work amongst the Bloods and wanted to gain their confidence, therefore I asked that he give me the reason. Turning to his colleagues he said: "Shall we tell Chief Mountain (that's my Indian name) about our commandments?" They all nodded in agreement, and after the accustomed ceremonial with the pipe he proceeded. "We listened to your words about the Ten Commandments, which you said God wrote on two tables of stone. He may have done that, but long before you Holy Whitemen (Clergymen) or any Whitemen came here we had five laws of our own, and while you Whitemen may have your Ten Commandments, we keep our five better than you keep your ten."

I was interested—breaking fresh ground so to speak. Eagerly I cried, "Tell me about your five laws." Here is the story, told ever so simply.

* * * * *

UKAISUMOYI—In the long ago our forefathers were wise men, They taught their children songs, games, rituals, dances, prayers, what they ought to do, what they ought not to do, and amongst these things were five laws which governed the tribe. Holding up his left hand (indicating with his fingers) he continued: the first was murder, we always demanded a life for a life; two, theft, the thief had to restore the stolen goods; three, adultery, an ear was cut off for the first offence, both ears and more if necessary for subsequent offences; fourth, cowardice, the person was clothed in a woman's garb, made to do the menial tasks around the camp and not allowed to marry; fifth, treachery, brought back to camp and shot at sight.

Such primitive lisping may sound rather romantic as you listen tonight, but to me, as I heard the old Indian expounding the philosophy of his people, it was very realistic and its effect left an impression which will never be effaced.

I then realized my handicap, that unless I could speak to him from a knowledge of his own mental and spiritual background, the efficacy of my own message would be considerably impaired. A similar case happened some time later. I was the guest overnight of

Chief Wesel Fatt. During the evening I asked if we might hold a service in the house. The chief called in his tribesmen. I put on my robes. We recited evensong in the Blackfoot language from our own Prayer Book. In due course the Indians departed. Wesel Fatt then turned to me and said: "Ninastoko, I listened to your prayers, will you listen to mine?" I humbly acknowledged his request.

He called in his wife and youngest child. At the west side of the house stood a tripod from which the Indian took his medicine bag. Carefully unwrapping the sacred bundle he placed it by the family altar, which is represented by a flat slab of stone, surmounted at each corner by a small Iniskim—buffalo stone—indicating the cardinal points of the compass. From the bag he took some sweet grass and placed it in the centre of the altar. Holding a forked willow tong he took from the stove a burning ember, which he placed on the sweet grass. Immediately incense commenced to rise. Standing at the west side, facing east, he held both hands, palms down, over the incense. Turning from the east to the south, west and north, he invoked a blessing of the Great Spirit on the act of his worship. He then placed his hands in a reverential attitude on his wife's head, mouth, body and feet, following out the same ritual with the child and himself, praying at the same time. He concluded by asking for good health, a long life and happiness for all his people. I was deeply impressed by that simple yet dignified service and hastened to ask for an explanation of its inner meaning. Briefly, here is the story.

In the long ago the Creator came to the earth. He made man and woman and all the animals. He placed the mountains where they are, formed the rivers and caused trees and grass to grow. Then He departed, but at some time in the future He will return. Before leaving however, Apistotokiwa taught our forefathers how to pray. He made the sweet grass grow on the hills from which they are named. Before praying to the Great Spirit we must purify ourselves by burning incense. The sweet grass is used for that purpose. We place our hands on the head, because it is there we have our thoughts; on the mouth from whence come words, good and bad, and we want strong words; on the body for health, unless we have good health we cannot hunt or fight; and on the feet to make us walk in the straight path.

Once again, I was not only interested, but humiliated. Whilst I had much to offer the Indian, I realised that his natural philosophy would carry him far. Listening to these old warriors tell their stories of by-gone days has taught me a valuable lesson.

It has often been said that the Blackfeet are Sun-Worshippers. I have yet to find definite proof for this supposition. According to the Indian (this is all involved in his mythology and folk-lore) the Sun is personified, the flat earth is the floor of his Lodge, and the over-arching sky its covering. The Moon is His wife, and their offspring is the Morning Star. The Sun is only one of the many deities comprehended in the Blackfoot system. There are others,

such as Kutoyis—Wind Maker— Under Water Person—Thunder, but all these rank lesser in degree. Precedence has always been given to the Sun, owing to the peculiar religious ceremonies connected with the annual Sun-Dance and Medicine Lodge. As the Cross is a symbol of sacrifice to the Whiteman, such in like manner is the Sun a symbol of sacrifice to the Indian. This vicarious act is invariably offered by women. If a woman has a son or husband absent at war, or if she has a dangerously sick child, she may make a vow to the Sun obligating her to erect a Medicine Lodge in his honour. The sufferings experienced during the ceremonies were sacrifices to the Sun. Torture was an actual penance. It was undertaken for no other purpose than that of pleasing the supernatural power—Aekatose—represented by the Sun as a propitiation or in fulfilment of vows made to him. It is merely the carrying out of a religious idea that is as old as history, and as widespread as the globe. It is closely akin to the motive which today, in our own centres of civilization prompts acts of self-denial and penance by many thousands of intelligent and cultured people. On several occasions I have witnessed the whole ceremony of the Sun-Dance, and have further written many articles about its religious significance.

* * * * *

IN THAT long ago a number of societies or guilds were evolved which were really law and order associations. So far as I have been able to ascertain there were twelve. Beginning with the Kukuyiks for boys, and on an ascending scale according to age and prowess, concluding at maturity with the famous Aitskinaiyiks, or Horn Society. The "Horns" possess certain peculiar secret signs and sacred ceremonies which are exceedingly interesting from a standpoint of anthropology. The "Braves"—All Comrades—are still active, likewise the "Motokyiks" or Holy Women. Since the necessity for the existence of several of these ancient societies is no longer apparent, owing to the inroads of civilization, the rituals and ceremonies are gradually being forgotten.

Just one or two more points before I conclude. The Blackfeet have contributed largely to the place names of Alberta. Indian names which have survived have been preserved in translation. Whether in the original tongue or in translation they will be found

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to refer to physical characteristics of the features named, to incidents of peace and war, or to personal associations with a region. Ponoka in the north is the Blackfoot word for Elk. Okotoks, south of here, means a pile of stones. Etzikum, a valley or deep coulee. The Porcupine Hills and Belly Buttes are translations of their physical attributes. Many more could be mentioned.

So much then for the Indian's past. What of his future? Standing here tonight amidst so many historic associations of the early Indian trading days, the words of the Orilla poet spring to my mind—

“Our footsteps tread
Where centuries ago
The Red Man fought and conquered
Lost and won.”

Possessing such a background, the Indian youth of today, owing to the splendid educational facilities, of which he is taking full advantage, is once again “on the march”. He has entered upon the highway of knowledge and steadfastly refused to linger on the ancient trails. We have in our school today students in every grade from one to twelve. Unconsciously the graduates are the transforming influence of the Reserve life. Some are gradually becoming absorbed into the body politic. The aim of citizenship, however, is yet to be attained. Civilized and educated, the Indian of the better class is not less intelligent than the average Whiteman, and he has every capacity for becoming a good citizen.

I visualize the Indian as he stands at the parting of the ways, casting a hurried glance backwards, and then looking straight ahead to the future, he says with Tennyson—

“Come my friends,
‘Tis not too late to seek a newer world.
Push off, and sitting well in order smite
The sounding furrows; for my purpose holds
To sail beyond the sunset, and the baths
Of the western skies . . . There to hope
To strive, to seek, and never to yield . . .
Until I die.”

Co-Operation

By Major G. H. A. McMillan, M.C.

"There must exist unity of direction and control of the armed forces". (F.S.R. III.2).

ALTHOUGH this is one of the cardinal maxims for the conduct of war, upon which our Field Service Regulations is founded, the general feeling in the British nation at large is that unity is lacking to some extent at present. The British Government also realize that improvements may be made in the existing form of control and have recently introduced measures to ensure a closer co-operation between the three Services—the Royal Navy, the Army and the Royal Air Force, than has existed in recent years.

In the course of my lecture today I want to consider the proposed measures for unity of control of the forces, co-operation between the forces themselves and also, since we are a military assembly, the question of the organization of the Army today and the means existing for successful co-operation between its component parts.

* * * * *

I SHOULD like first of all to examine the system of control of the services in the history of the British Empire in the past. From such an examination we may obtain the doubtful advantage of seeing how things should NOT be done and perhaps be enabled to view the situation today in a better perspective.

Prior to 1904 when the C.I.D.—to which I shall refer again later—was first instituted, the control of the Royal Navy and the Army was left largely to their respective chiefs and little or no controlling influence, as we recognise it today, was exercised by the Government. I shall therefore deal with the two services separately.

* * * * *

IN FEUDAL times the various shires in England had to produce a quota of ships when required in time of war.

King John decided that a more stable element than this quota was required and kept a fleet of King's ships for his own personal use, to supplement the feudal militia ships. We find, however, that the feudal ships often spent their time attacking and looting the villages in the neighboring shires, while the King's ships were occasionally hired out to other nations in order to provide funds for their royal masters.

In 1546, King Henry VIII. inaugurated a Navy Board to look after his fleet for him, which developed in due course into the Admiralty, the Navy passing, during the reigns of the Stuarts, out of

the Royal control into the control of the nation as represented by Parliament. The date of this transition may be given as that of the Dutch Wars in 1652.

The development of Army control is similar in outline to that of the Royal Navy. In the earliest periods of English history, armed forces existed only in times of actual war and troops were raised as required. Their control was governed by Articles of War issued by the advice of the Constable, Peers or "other experienced persons", or enacted by the Commander-in-Chief under the Crown.

This somewhat haphazard system naturally led to abuses and "the experienced persons" became rather too astute, with the result that we read that in 1521, Henry VIII. was compelled to execute the High Constable, Edward Duke of Buckingham. The powers of controlling national armed forces thereafter were transferred to the Crown.

The institution of a standing army, which dates from the Restoration in 1660, necessitated the establishment of a military code and the origins of our Military Law and other regulations for the conduct of the Army date from that year.

1669 is perhaps a landmark in the history of the organization of the British Army. William III. in that year was forced to find a solution of the problem "how to place the army equally between the Crown and Parliament, so that the interests of the one should not prevail as to disturb the influence of the other".

The Bill of Rights, the Act of Settlement and the Mutiny Act were the result and Army administration was placed on a basis which lasted for 367 years until the Crimean War.

By these acts of legislation Government and command remained the prerogative of the Crown. Finance was under a Secretary at War, Artillery and Engineers, Arms, Stores, Barracks, etc., under a Master General of the Ordnance, and Transport and Supply in the hands of Civil Commissaries responsible directly to the Treasury.

Since the Crimean War various changes have been made in the controlling organizations of the Army, notably by Cardwell in 1881 and in the formation of an Army Council in 1904, but the relationship towards the Crown and the nation has remained the same.

The Royal Air Force, youngest of our defence forces, dates from 1918 only, when the Air Ministry was established as a separate entity and took over the R.F.C. and R.N.A.S. and formed them into the R.A.F. Historians trace the beginnings of aerial warfare to the use of balloons at the siege of Paris in 1870 and the formation of a balloon school at Woolwich in 1878.

The controversies which have raged, and are still in evidence,

between the older services and the R.A.F. on the subject of control of aircraft operating with the Royal Navy and the Army, have at times been acute.

* * * * *

I THINK from the brief survey that you can see how in early times the control of the Royal Navy and Army was in the personal possession of the King, how it passed from the King to Parliament after the Restoration and how, from then until our own time, the heads of each service ran their own show at the bidding of Parliament. Since 1918 the R. A. F. have been on a similar footing to the other two services.

The formation in 1904 of the Committee of Imperial Defence was the first real attempt to ensure that the efforts of the services in time of war should be co-ordinated and directed along the right lines by the formulation of plans in peace time which would be put into execution in time of war at the bidding of the Government.

From these small beginnings, the C.I.D. has developed apace and today it not only prepares plans, but advises the Government on policy, surveys the requirements of all three services on a long term basis, makes arrangements for the economical utilization of man-power and the nation's resources in time of war, and, in short, in reality performs the function of that mythical institution, a Ministry of Defence for which so many military—and civil—critics are so clamorous.

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THAT is the story of service control. The story of service co-operation in the past has not always been happy. The position of Great Britain as an island and her command of the sea have usually conferred the initiative upon her naval and military forces and allowed them great liberty of action in operations against her enemies.

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Within the limits imposed by geographical conditions, by weather, by enemy defences and by shipping available for the transport of troops, the nation which possesses command of the sea can strike when and where it pleases and against objectives that are either naval, military or aerial, while its ships will always form a "floating base" for the troops and aircraft.

As a result of this situation, kings and parliaments have not hesitated to despatch military expeditions to all parts of the globe, but unfortunately the story of landings in the face of enemy opposition does not make consistently happy reading.

I have looked at the recorded history of some typical operations and, although many have been successful such as those at Minorca, 1708, Louisburg, 1745 and 1757, and Copenhagen in 1807, the records of almost an equal number are stories of tragic failure, costing the loss of hundreds of lives of unfortunate soldiers and seamen.

The success or failure of the operations may be largely ascribed to the feelings of friendliness or jealousy between the naval and military commanders in each occasion, although haphazard organization by the authorities at home is by no means infrequent and is too often contributory towards disaster. In this connection it may be interesting to quote Smollett's description of the feelings of the commanders at Cartagena, 1739, towards each other. It might be said of these great men (I hope they will pardon the comparison) as of Caesar and Pompey, the one could not brook a superior and the other was impatient of an equal; so that between the pride of one and the insolence of another, the enterprise miscarried, according to the proverb, "Between two stools the backside falls to the ground."

Again, a soldier writing during the expedition to Walcheren, 1809, says, "Indeed you can scarcely conceive, without having witnessed it, the hard, stubborn, jealous, mischievous nature of these sons of the ocean. A military man should be sworn to the patient endurance of hardship, like the ancient fighter; and it is not the least of these necessary hardships to have to serve with seamen. I should as soon expect a musket to swim as to expect a good understanding between seamen and soldiers."

A more pleasing testimony is that of Wolfe in 1757, who, in his description of the capture of Louisburg, says, "The Admiral and General have carried on the public service with great harmony, industry and union."

* * * * *

THE CENTURY which followed Walcheren saw the disappearance of these mutual dislikes and our many combined operations during the last war, successful or unsuccessful as they may have resulted in the end, at least showed what excellent feelings of fellowship and mutual respect existed between British sailors and soldiers in modern times. Since the war the R.A.F. have also taken part in

well-executed operations in conjunction with the Army, notably in Iraq, Somaliland and the N.W.F. of India

This happy result has been achieved, first, by the more efficient control from above as exercised by the War Cabinet during the period 1914-18 and subsequently by the Government during the years of so-called peace consequent upon the considered advice tendered to them by the C.I.D., and, secondly, by the wider understanding of each other's responsibilities by the members of each of the Services.

For instance, in 1917 it was clear that the submarine menace was threatening our sea power and did in fact bring us within an ace of defeat. Plans were therefore made by the Army to carry out operations on the Belgian coast against the enemy submarine bases in order to assist the Navy to deal more effectively with these enemy weapons.

Again, the despatch of a division of the Indian Army and a Cavalry division to the Persian Gulf in 1914 was primarily designed to safeguard the Persian oil-fields upon which the Navy set great store, while the military operations against the Turks in Palestine were originally planned solely to preserve that important link in Imperial communications—the Suez Canal.

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THE ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE ANNUAL JOURNAL

In peace time, the Navy has the responsibility of keeping open the sea communications between Great Britain and the outlying portions of the Empire and for this there are two reasons. In the first place, the small densely populated islands of the United Kingdom rely for their existence on foodstuffs and other articles imported from overseas.

In times of war, the interruption of these imports for even the shortest time, might cause hardships which, if prolonged, would mean actual starvation.

Secondly, our colonies and overseas possessions in most cases maintain garrisons which are just sufficient to keep order in peace time and hold out in time of war until reinforcements can reach them from elsewhere—usually from Great Britain.

In order that the Navy may fulfil its responsibility for the maintenance of sea communications, it requires bases from which to operate and these bases are garrisoned by the Army, while the R.A.F. provides contingents both for the protection of the fleets at sea and for the increased protection of fortresses on land.

This co-operation does not stop with the protection of fortresses. Our small and scattered garrisons overseas have on more than one occasion, in the ordinary course of what is called "Imperial Policing", been forced in recent years to despatch troops to restore order or to preserve order in areas where conflicts were in process of developing.

In 1930 British troops were transported in warships and in aircraft from Egypt to Cyprus, in 1931 a battalion travelled in aircraft from Egypt to Iraq, and in 1932 troops were conveyed in cruisers from Hong-Kong to Shanghai to deal with a sudden emergency.

* * * * *

EACH SERVICE in turn is composed of various different units and formations all designed for various purposes.

You are all acquainted at least with the names of various types of ships and aircraft and have a knowledge of the purposes for which they are designed.

The same applies to the branches of the Army, but you are, after all, a military audience and considerable changes are now taking place within the Army. These changes are inspired with the idea of improving the co-operation between the component parts of the Army. They therefore merit especial consideration in this lecture and it is with them that I now propose to deal rather than with those in the Royal Navy and R.A.F., about which I am hardly qualified to speak.

* * * * *

THE TWO fields in which increased co-operation between the various component parts of the Army has made the greatest progress are:—

- (1) Improvements in communications.
- (2) Improvements in mobility.

As regards communications—great technical strides have been made in the design and capacity of W/T and R/T both between units on the ground and for communication with aircraft co-operating with ground troops. In spite of these mechanical aids to obtaining and disseminating information rapidly, I should like to emphasize the point upon which the Kirke Committee laid such stress in their report on the Lessons of the Great War, and that is that the commanders of all units today must be well forward in the battlefield where they can keep in close personal touch with their commands and with the situation, and be in a position promptly to move their reserves at the decisive time in the right direction.

Improvements in mobility, of course, are all the result of the great strides made in recent years in the efficiency of the internal combustion engine, and have produced far-reaching changes both in the forward and back areas in the theatre of operations of armies.

The rapidity with which supplies and troops can be moved over long distances by motor vehicles when not in the presence of the enemy needs no description, but remember that the increase in numbers of motor vehicles has rendered necessary the provision of many other units for their supply and maintenance in the field, and the difficulties of concealing movements by road from enemy air observation present many problems which are as yet but partially solved.

A recent writer in *The Times* has said: "Another handicap on mobility is the tendency of all European armies to increase their own needs. The desire for stronger armament causes a demand for more transport; the desire for better communications leads to more complex communications; the desire for superior organization creates an additional organization to deal with the development. In building up its power to overcome the enemy resistance, an army is apt to set up an internal resistance to its advance. Thus what has been gained by the advent of mechanized means of movement is largely offset by the growth of impedimenta.

"It is not a necessary growth, but military evolution has always tended to be a process of accretion, tacking new means on to the old body. The idea of remodelling design is foreign to tradition. And the result today is the paradoxical one that armies have become less mobile as their limbs have become more mobile. The hare dons the shell of the tortoise".

* * * * *

IN THE forward area the mobility of the troops engaged in battle has also been assisted by the internal combustion engine embodied in the A.F.V., which, under favourable conditions, can enable the

infantry to overcome the problems of the unlocated machine guns and uncut wire entanglements.

For this purpose each infantry division in the field may expect to have one Army Tank Battalion (50 "1" tanks and four light tanks) allotted to it. Experiments are still being conducted in order to discover the most satisfactory method of employing these tanks in conjunction with infantry and with or without artillery support.

The C.I.G.S. in describing their employment in Army Manoeuvres in 1935, stated: "They were employed in four distinct ways. First, in small packets in front of the infantry like spaniels. Secondly, in support behind and only called up to take on a particular task. Thirdly, to get the infantry on the last 400 or 500 yards—a rather larger problem—and latterly they were occasionally used, quite legitimately, to fill an unexpected hole somewhere, such as when the enemy had got behind or on a flank and there was nothing else available to send at short notice to stop him".

The faster moving types of A.F.V. too have their place in co-operation with the modern mechanized cavalry and in place of the old horsed cavalry division we have the new Mobile Division composed of:—

- 2 cavalry brigades—mechanized.
- 1 tank brigade.
- 1 brigade R.H.A.—mechanized.
- 1 squadron R. E. —mechanized.
- R.A.S.C.—mechanized.
- R.A.O.C.—mechanized.
- 1 or 2 cavalry armoured car regiments.
- Call on extra field brigades if necessary.

The mechanized cavalry brigade consists of two regiments transported in sectional trucks and one regiment of light tanks.

The regiments are supplied with scout cars for their own local protection, they have a fair cross-country capacity and the cavalry brigade can be worked in much the same way as their horsed predecessors.

The regiments in trucks may be expected to support the armoured car regiments very closely if ground made good by them has to be held. The men in the trucks will fight on their feet and the trucks, like horses in the past, will be kept as close as possible to their sections when they are in action.

* * * * *

TO RETURN to the infantry; the training manuals rightly stress the necessity for co-operation between all arms—"As a first step to proper combination all commanders must understand the characteristics and limitations of the other arms" is one of the earliest statements in F.S.R. II, Chap. I. But so necessary has become the

provision of weapons other than the rifle for the intimate support and protection of the foot soldier, that, since the war, the armament of an infantry battalion has grown to include machine guns, mortars and anti-tank guns, besides light automatics and grenades.

The result is that battalions are overburdened with specialists, and infantry brigades are in danger of having the supporting arms, such as machine guns and anti-tank guns, perpetually over-dispersed, unless special arrangements are made to concentrate some of them by removing them temporarily from the control of their own units.

The introduction of new and simplified light automatics to replace the Lewis gun and the advent of a light anti-tank rifle, both of which will be non-specialist in their operation, has enabled the Army Council to decide on the re-organization of the infantry brigade into three rifle battalions and one machine gun battalion.

In the new organization, the heavy machine guns and A.T. guns will be grouped in the machine gun battalion, which will consist of two companies each of 4 platoons, each platoon comprising 4 guns, one A.T. company (3 platoons of 4 guns) and a scout company, probably of three platoons of three patrols each. The whole battalion will be mechanized and the C.O. or 2 i/c will perform the duties at present carried out by the B.M.G.O. All the sub-units will be self-contained, as far as possible, in order that they may be sub-allotted for operations with the rifle battalions as and when required and the existence therefore of a machine gun battalion should not alter the tactical handling of an infantry brigade to any appreciable extent.

The rifle battalions, in their turn, should become more homogeneous by the withdrawal of these specialists, and will consist of a H.Q. company, comprising signallers, A.A. gunners, a mortar platoon and administrative personnel, and four rifle companies, each consisting of four platoons of three sections.

Every section will have a Bren gun and an A.T. rifle, which weapons can be carried by the men or kept in the company transport as required by the situation.

The mechanization of battalion transport will allow each company to carry with it a supply of picks and shovels.

* * * * *

IT MUST not be forgotten, when considering the modernization or re-organization of the British Army, that we are not faced with one single military problem for which we can prepare, but that the British troops may be called upon to fight in any part of the world at short notice.

European nations are usually in the position of having as their potential enemies their next-door neighbours only, and can prepare the best army possible for fighting their neighbours on ground with which they are more or less familiar.

The equipment and organization of our Army, however, must be capable of employment not only in Europe, but in the Middle East, India and the Far East before it can be considered satisfactory and ready to stand the test of war.

This is a factor which is frequently overlooked by those advocates of sweeping changes in the equipment of the army, for instance vehicles, which might be admirable in design and performance upon roads in France might be incapable of movement in the hills on the N.W.F. of India or in the paddy-fields of China.

* * * * *

SUCH IS the situation. Let us conclude by considering how co-operation may be advanced in the future.

Between allies—Admiral Richmond put this very clearly when he wrote: "Although it is obvious that allies must have something in common to achieve—otherwise they would not have allied themselves—yet the difficulty of getting them to work together is one of the commonplaces of the history of war", and I am afraid it is true that until nations, when allied, can realize that they must recognize the necessity for the fullest co-operation, it is probably only when disaster appears to stare them in the face that they will really make "common cause" in their joint efforts to defeat their foes.

Alliances as such must therefore be warily approached and their terms of operation clearly defined from the start. If this had been realized in 1914 the co-operation between Sir John French and Marshal Joffre might perhaps have been more felicitous.

In the control of the nation's war effort—For many years controversy has raged round the system of control of the war efforts of the British fighting forces, and the protagonists of a Ministry of Defence have become increasingly numerous.

The Government have now acted and their decisions, as announced in a White Paper early this year (1936), provide for the following:—

1. The Prime Minister to remain as Chairman of the C.I.D. and the Defence Policy and Requirements Committee, but a Minister to be appointed as Deputy-Chairman for general supervision and to supervise detailed discussion with sub-committees.
2. The Deputy Chairman to consult the Chiefs of Staffs personally and convene their committee under his own chairmanship when necessary.
3. The Deputy Chairman to be chairman of the P.S.O. Committee. The Chiefs of Staffs will be responsible to their own Minister respectively and to the Deputy Chairman of the C.I.D.

The Joint Planning Committee which prepares much of the work for, and at the direction of the C.O.S. Committee, will be strengthened by the addition of a graduate of the I.D.C. from each service.

In this way it is hoped that:—

- (1) There will be an improved and strengthened apparatus for the consideration of defence problems as a whole.
- (2) The fullest and most effective use will be made of the industrial capacity and the man power of the nation available for the production of industrial material in time of war.

Service Co-operation—The effect of a better direction of the higher control of the services must be felt throughout the services both in peace and war. Every opportunity must be taken, however, to bring all three services together by combined training in peace and by attachments and interchange of officers whenever possible.

The best example of combined training is perhaps the combined operations exercise held annually at the Staff College, Camberley, in which the students of the two Staff Colleges and the R.N. War College collaborate over a period of two months, working together at Camberley for the last fortnight of the exercise.

Internal Co-operation in the Army. I have tried to show you in outline a picture of the far-reaching changes in the Army which are taking place today, with a view to producing a better balanced and better proportioned machine for operations in the field.

I have also indicated—with the assistance of the Times—how by the increase of impedimenta, the increased mobility conferred by mechanized vehicles is modified, if not positively obstructed.

A recent writer has stated that the solution may lie in the increased employment of aircraft for transport, attack and supply. Such a solution looks too far ahead in the present stage of development of aircraft, but I suggest that in the meantime every effort must be made, when considering present or future organizations, to reduce the numbers of vehicles and quantity of impedimenta in the field.

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ADMIRAL RICHMOND, whom I quoted earlier, suggested that a disaster was necessary before allies could make a "common cause" together in the face of the enemy. This may be so, but as far as the various divisions of the nation, business, professional, etc., are concerned, as far as the services are concerned and as far as the branches of the arms are concerned, I feel that it is common knowledge that is required and not common disaster. The more we can study each other's problems and the more we can understand each other's difficulties, the better will be the co-operation when it is required by the nation.

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The Evolution of the War Ship

By Engineer Commander A. D. M. Curry, R.C.N.

IN THE short time available this evening I hope to be able to trace the development of the line of battleship from the early days up to the present time, from the Viking ship to the Hood, laid down in 1916 and completed in 1920.

The Hood is 41,000 tons displacement, 32 knots speed, 157,000 h.p., 819 feet long, eight 15 in. guns, twelve 5.5 in. guns and several smaller guns and six torpedo tubes.

Time will not permit of my dealing with any class of ship other than the line of battleship—such classes as frigates, sloops, torpedo craft, cruisers, torpedo gun-boats, submarines, etc., having of necessity to be omitted from this paper.

The word "starboard" which was derived from "steerboard" was designated to that side of the ship on which the steersman had his oar, this being the right side of the ship. It was protected from the enemies' arrows by a bulwark on the starboard side, the other side of the vessel being left clear to enable the lading and unloading of stores, etc., to be proceeded with and hence this side of the ship was called the "ladeboard" which was eventually "larboard". However, the two terms "starboard" and "larboard" were apt to be confusing—particularly when shouted in a gale of wind—and as a result the expression "larboard" was changed to "port".

The word "starboard" is derived from the old Saxon steeraboard for steerboard, which was a paddle shipped on the starboard quarter to act as a rudder.

Larboard was the opposite side, and corresponds with the term port. I have heard it suggested that the term "larboard" was a corruption of "leeboard", but cannot vouch for this. The Italians derived the word "starboard" from "questa borda"—meaning "this side", and "larboard" from "quella borda"—"that side", this being abbreviated to "starborda" and "larborda". The term "port" is not of very modern origin, as it is mentioned in Arthur Pitt's voyage in 1580. I don't know whether there is any truth in the suggestion that the term "port" was derived from the custom of preferably placing this side towards the shore when going alongside, owing to the fact that the leeboard could be easily unrigged so as to avoid being damaged while the steerboard would be required to navigate the ship into the required position.

The earliest naval engagement in which English ships took part were fought in the years 833 and 840, in the reigns of Egbert and Ethelwulf, the first two Kings of England.

The Viking ships at this time were larger and more seaworthy than were those of the English, whose ships were crude developments of the log canoe.

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THE REMAINS of several of these canoes have been found. One is now in the British Museum.

The canoe was hollowed from the trunk of a large tree, transverse pieces being left at intervals along the length to give strength to the sides. In some there was a row of holes along each side, these holes being used for securing planks along the sides to give protection to the crew and greater seaworthiness. This practice is carried out at the present day in open boats fitted in the Service, portable washboards or strakes being fitted when sailing to prevent water coming inboard.

Paddles were the chief means of propulsion, the canoes being too narrow for the use of oars, and it is probable that a mast and square sails were used in favourable winds.

The Mora, in which William the Conqueror invaded England in 1066, is pictured in the Bayeux tapestry. The ship is long and narrow with one mast and a square sail and fitted for thirty-two oars. The raised stem and stern posts of the Viking type still remain, but the ship is deeper and the bulwarks are built well up. However, the ship is low in the water, and further protection from the weather and whilst fighting is obtained by the arrangement of the shields along the sides. The ship is entirely open with no sign of any deck and steering was performed by an oar fixed through the starboard quarter. At the mast head the Mora carried a lantern as an indication that she was the ship in which the Duke was sailing, and this may be considered as the first example of an Admiral's toplights now general in all navies.

Richard I on the way to the Holy Land encountered a Saracen ship which carried an armament of Greek Fire and Serpents; composition of Greek Fire probably a mixture of chemicals squirted through tubes which took fire on contact with the air. The fire could only be put out by sand or vinegar.

Serpents were apparently more minor forms of Greek Fire discharged by catapults.

DeBurg in the Battle of Sandwich, 1217, used quick lime, which was thrown into the wind and blown down upon the enemy. This is the first indication of the use of the weather gauge.

During the 12th and 13th Centuries great advances were made in shipbuilding and seamanship. The fighting ship still retained the form of the long swift galley generally propelled by oars and sometimes rigged with a mast and sail, which were removed before going into action. The merchant ships had a permanent mast and sail and used oars as a secondary means of propulsion and when prepared for

war were fitted with castles forward and aft, and usually had a cage or top at the masthead from which missiles could be thrown onto the decks of ships alongside. These castles were the forerunners of the forecastle and poop of later years, and the cage marks the first appearance of the fighting top, or in more modern ships the control top.

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A BUSE or Droman of the time of Henry III (1217) was a converted merchantman. The hull was pointed at both ends and the beam was increased. The space between the raised stem and stern posts of the Viking ships was filled in and a deck built over it. The bulwarks were pierced for the use of oars or sweeps and steering was still carried out by means of an oar on the starboard quarter. One mast was carried with a large square sail, usually highly decorated. The castles and fighting top were evidently not a part of the ship's structure, but erected for fighting purposes only.

The general tendency of English built ships was to become rounder in shape, with fighting castles as part of their normal structure. Another important advance was made in the appearance of the rudder, slung to the stern post, in place of the steering oar.

In the round ships of the time of Edward III (1340), concentration was made to improve the hull whilst little advance had been made in the rig. The forecastle and poop had become permanent, but the rig was almost identical with that of the 13th Century, except that a bowsprit was carried. This bowsprit was used merely for carrying a grapnel or anchor and not to give greater sail area. One interesting addition is the fitting of reef points as a means of shortening sail in heavy weather. This practically was abandoned in the following century only to be revived at a later date.

Guns were first used by the Spanish ships at the battle of La-rochelle in 1372; they were of minor importance using stone for shot.

Guns only became the main armament in the 16th Century, previously the cross bow had been the main armament.

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A BOUT 1840 the hull had become longer and narrower than in the earlier ships and the rig improved to obtain greater sail power and speed. The forecastle had been extended beyond the stem and carried a bowsprit and short foremast. Under the bowsprit was set a spritsail and the foremast carried a large square foresail. A small topsail was set above the mainsail and reef points had been abandoned in favour of laced bonnets at the foot of the mainsail.

The aftercastle was increased in height by having a poop built upon it and two after masts added, on which triangular lateen sails were set. These sails indicate the first attempts to sail across the direction of the wind, as they naturally had the effect of making the ship's head point up towards the wind when the square sails were braced across the ship. A few small guns were carried and the anchor and cable made their first appearance.

During the Reign of Henry VII a very definite increase in the size of ships took place, and the English began to develop into a hardy race of seamen, who took the English ships to all seas of the world. Great strides were made in the size and power of artillery.

* * * * *

WHEN HENRY VIII succeeded his father, he determined to mount these new guns on board his ships. The guns were too heavy to be mounted in the castles and had to be placed on the lower or cargo decks. Holes were cut in the ship's side for the guns to fire through and ports were used for closing the holes. Thus we see the development of ships capable of firing broadsides of heavy guns, designed to damage the hull and rigging of the enemy. These ships of Henry VIII were built exclusively for fighting ships, of which 85 were built in his reign. The "Henry Grasea Dieu" or "Great Harry" was the most magnificent of them all.

The forecæstle and aftercæstle were large structures with numerous embrasures for small guns. The heavy ordnance was carried below and the ports through which they fired were cut through the hull of the ship towards the bow and stern. The foremast was now full sized square rigged, but the aftermasts carried lateen sails as before. She had topgallant sails over her topsails and in this respect she was a good way ahead of her time as topgallant sails did not come into general use until about 100 years later. Under a large bowsprit was carried a square spritsail. All the ships of this time conformed to merchant ship construction in that their length was about twice the beam.

In 1577 the old cargo deck, which had been spoilt for its original purpose by the mounting of heavy ordnance, was turned into a gun deck only. The length of the ships was increased until the proportion of length to beam was three to one, thus producing ships completely outclassing their predecessors in speed and sailing qualities and enabling them to carry more guns along each side.

The Revenge was the first of these ships, which was the type that Drake used in his famous expedition to Cadiz in 1587, when the King of Spain's beard was singed. Taking only four ships into the harbour he engaged and defeated the whole fleet of Spanish galleons, who were unable to withstand the broadside fire of the heavy ordnance in Drake's ships. This battle established the broadside battleship as the fighting ship of the future.

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THE REVENGE, Drake's flagship against the Armada, met her historic end in Sir Richard Grenville's heroic fight off the Azores in 1591. The finer proportions of the hull are noticeable; the cumbersome forward castle is dismantled giving place to a low forecæstle with the foremast stepped well forward in the ship. The after part of the ship is built up with a half deck, quarter deck and poop, and galleries appear around the stern. The sides of the ship are

pierced fore and aft for the mounting of the heavy guns, the lighter pieces being carried in the raised superstructure.

The rig is simpler, the bowsprit carries the usual square spritsail under it, both fore and main masts carry two sails only, the topsails being somewhat triangular in shape and having no topgallant sails set over them. The aftermasts, of which there were one or more, carried lateen sails as before. The secret of their success was the increased length in proportion to the beam, and was an example followed by the merchant ships of the following century.

After the death of Queen Elizabeth in 1603, James I made peace with Spain under such disadvantageous terms that British ships were forbidden to trade in certain seas, or even defend themselves if attacked, under the penalty of being treated as privateers.

The Navy was starved for money and the ships allowed to deteriorate. In fact, the powerful Navy built up during the previous 100 years almost ceased to exist. However, the names of Hudson, Baffin, and Raleigh stand out to show that a few English sailors still dared to sail the seas in James I's reign. During this time large numbers of seamen left the country to serve with foreign powers or settle in new lands; so much so that when a naval expedition was fitted out to attack Cadiz on the accession of Charles I, it was found that the whole breed of sailors had temporarily disappeared. The military officers commanded the ships, of which the Navy could only contribute nine out of the hundred required. As could only be expected this expedition failed disastrously, but it served to awaken Charles I to the danger to the country through lack of naval power. He levied the "ship money" tax to rebuild the navy and also laid the basis of the first permanent Royal Fleet.

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THE Sovereign of the Seas was the first of the "ship money" fleet, which consisted of five ships. She was the finest vessel that had ever been built, but out of the £40,000 spent on completing her 25 per cent. went in decoration alone.

She carried 100 guns arranged in three tiers. The forward beak was made larger and stronger to break the seas and prevent them falling onboard when sailing close to the wind. In the rig there were many changes. There were three masts all square rigged. Under the bowsprit was the usual spritsail, but the bowsprit terminated in a small top or platform on which was fitted a mast carrying a small square sail called the sprit topsail.

Topgallant sails were carried on the fore and main masts. The mizzen mast carried a square topsail but under it was retained the lateen sail set upon a long fore and aft yard.

The Sovereign of the Seas was very cranky and was cut down in 1652 to a two decker.

* * * * *

THE Britannia was a typical battleship of the 17th Century, built in 1682. She was a three decker, mounting 100 guns, and somewhat similar to the Sovereign of the Seas. The long decorated beak of the Elizabethan and Stuart periods became shorter and there was less carved decoration about the hull. The rig had altered but little except that the topsails were larger than before and reef points introduced. The guns were in three tiers, and some of the gunports partially masked by placing the chain wales for the shrouds below the level of the middle deck.

The Peace of Utrecht was followed by a period of about 30 years of peace as far as the Navy was concerned, and again the Navy was neglected.

During the War with Spain in 1739 the Fleet was regenerated and a few great ships were built.

One of these, the Victory, was said to be the finest battleship of her time. She carried 110 guns, the forward beak was still further shortened and became practically a figurehead. The chain wales for the shrouds were moved up on deck and above the level of the middle deck guns. The spritsail and sprit topsail were still retained, and the bowsprit was lengthened by the addition of a jibboom on which was set a three cornered sail called the jib, thus marking the introduction of the "fore and aft" headsails, the square spritsail and sprit topsail gradually disappearing. The rig of the fore and main masts changed but little and on the mizzen mast a small part only of the after lateen sail is set before the mast, this being the first indication of the development of the spanker or driver of later days. This ship was lost with all hands, approximately 1100, in the winter of 1744.

* * * * *

AFTER eight years of peace, the Seven Years' War broke out in 1756. Lord Anson had been at the Admiralty during this period, and it is to his administration that the progressive improvement of the Royal Navy to its high state of efficiency in later years was due. The dockyards and their administration were thoroughly overhauled, and many reforms were introduced as regards personnel, including the formation of the Corps of Royal Marines in 1755. Great attention was given to improvements in the design and fitting out of the ships. The bottoms of the ships were covered with a copper sheathing, preventing the accumulation of weed and barnacles and adding enormously to the speed and seakeeping qualities of our ships. This had a marked effect on the results of the wars of the following fifty years, as in most cases British ships had to keep the sea for long periods waiting for the enemy to come out.

In 1759 the keel of our most famous ship the Victory was laid. She was launched in 1765, and she was not unlike her predecessor in general appearance. The spritsail, topmast and topsail disappeared and the lateen sail on the mizzen mast had been reduced in size by removing the portion before the mizzen mast.

Towards the end of the 18th Century, studding sails were introduced, mizzen topgallant sails became common, royals were set above all three topgallant sails in light winds, and the spanker, fitted with boom and gaff finally took the place of the old lateen sails on the mizzen. Jibs and flying jibs were set upon the bowsprit and the number of fore and aft triangular sails, called "staysails" after the stays of the masts on which they were set, was increased. When the Victory went into action at Trafalgar she was forty years old, but had been brought up-to-date. Her rig was approximately the same as the Vanguard, a 74 gun two decker.

The Victory for over 160 years has been almost continuously a flagship. Keppel flew his flag in her off Brest, Jervis at St. Vincent, Nelson at Trafalgar, and since then she has been the flagship of successive Commanders-in-Chief at Portsmouth.

* * * * *

THE first two decades of the 19th Century marked the zenith of sail, and from that time was displaced more and more by the advent of steam and the steam engine.

In 1820 the first steam vessel in the Navy, H.M.S. Monkey, appears. She was a small ship used chiefly for harbour purposes. The steam engine, however, was first tried afloat about 1790, and by 1815 there were nine vessels at work in England, but progress was so slow that this number had only risen to 86 by 1835, the majority of these ships being used as tugs in inland waters.

By 1830, it was decided to construct the steam fighting ship, and, as the result of this ship, four vessels were constructed to the design of the four master shipwrights at the different yards, these being:—

Rhadamanthus. Devonport; Salamander, Sheerness; Phoenix, Chat-ham; Medea, commissioned January, 1834, Woolwich.

These vessels were about 800 tons, had engines of 220 n.h.p. and were paddle driven. They were referred to as being "most inadequate sea boats, beautiful to look at, and as sharp in the bow as the bill of a snipe, admirably calculated for running over a lake provided the blast does not exalt the rage of the billows".

In 1845, the largest and finest of all our paddle wheel vessels, H.M.S. Terrible, was launched. Her displacement was about 3,000 tons, indicated horse power nearly 2,000, n.p.h. 800. 225 feet long, 43 feet wide (length five times beam), and at one time had an armament of seven 68 pounders, four 10 inch, ten 8 inch, and four light 32 pounder guns. When she joined the Squadron off Lisbon, Admiral Sir William Parker wrote, "The Terrible is a noble vessel and answers completely".

Practically all of these earlier vessels were built of wood and generally speaking the speed of the larger ships was about 11 knots.

* * * * *

IN 1828, Captain Sir John Ross published a treatise on steam navigation. It was he who sailed in a little steamer called the Victory in 1829 in an endeavour to find the north west passage.

In 1828, there was a great body of opinion against steam vessels. Approached by Mr. Hay on behalf of the Colonial Office, with the request for a steamer to convey mails between Malta and the Ionian Islands, Lord Melville, the First Lord of the Admiralty, replied that he "regretted the inability of My Lords Commissioners to comply with the request of the Colonial Department, as they felt it their bounden duty upon national and professional grounds, to discourage to the utmost of their ability the employment of steam vessels, as they considered that the introduction of the steam was calculated to strike a fatal blow to the Naval supremacy of the Empire".

Many Admirals were like Sir George Cockburn, who declared that "since the introduction of steam vessels he had never seen a clean deck or captain who when he waited upon him did not look like a sweep". On the other hand, there were many who agreed with Sir

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Thomas Hardy (Nelson's Hardy) who a week before he died at Greenwich remarked "Some people laugh at science, but science will alter the whole character of the Navy; depend upon it, steam and gunnery are in their infancy".

The value of a powerful steam vessel, as a component of a fleet, was exemplified in the case of the *Medea*. In February, 1835, the Mediterranean Fleet was weatherbound in Malta harbour. A gale from the north-east was blowing and the heavy swell made it impracticable for ships to beat out.

The Fleet being urgently required, the *Medea* raised steam, and in turn towed the *Caledonia*—120 guns, and five 80-gun ships from their moorings to sea, an operation which was effected in four hours, ten minutes, after which the fires were extinguished on board the *Medea* and she pursued her course as a sailing vessel in company with the Squadron, the whole cost for coal and other engine stores expended on this occasion amounting to only £3-9-0.

* * * * *

FOR ordinary fleet actions at that time (1842) it was considered that the great value of steam vessels would be to tow the sailing line of battleships into and out of action, and at the bombardment of Sebastopol in the Black Sea, in 1854, most of the paddle wheel frigates were so used, being lashed to the disengaged side. When the point was under discussion, Lord Auckland wrote to Admiral Sir William Parker, Commander-in-Chief of the Mediterranean in 1847:—

"You know how favourite a notion it is with me that every strong ship shall have her attendant steamer, and I think that your Squadron may consist of:—*Hibernia*, Terrible, 800 h.p.; *Canopus*, Dragon, 560 h.p.; *Trafalgar*, Retribution, 800 h.p.; *Superb*, Centaur, 540 h.p.; *Rodney*, Sidon, 560 h.p.; *America*, Gladiator, 430 h.p.; *Albion*, Avenger, 650 h.p.; *Thetis*, Scourge, 430 h.p."

The combination of the sailing ship and the paddle steamer was seen for many years afterwards on the North American station, where the Admiral flew his flag in a sailing line of battleships, but was always accompanied by a steamer which towed the flagship during calms and light head winds, and which was towed by her during

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fresh and fair winds, so as to save her coal. Practically all the paddle wheel war vessels we had saw active service during the Russian War and proved of great use. The screw, however, had already asserted its superiority; it was being universally adopted, and the result of the war was to cause the paddle wheel frigate and the old wooden line of battleship alike to be consigned to mere routine duties, if not to the scrap heap. As fighting ships, their day was done.

* * * * *

WE NOW come to the transition from the paddle wheel to the screw propeller. The prejudice against the adoption of steam in the Navy was centred, in the first place, around the adoption of the paddle, apart from the natural distrust of a new invention. The paddles were liable to damage and to interfere with the mounting of guns on the broadside.

In 1834, Mr.—afterwards Sir Francis—Smith (he was a farmer by profession, the son of the postmaster at Hendon) commenced experimenting with the submerged screw, taking out patents two years later, and eventually submitting his plans to the Admiralty. The screw was applied to several small craft, one of which towed the Admiralty barge, with their Lordships on board, at a speed of about 10 knots. Their Lordships were not, however, impressed.

The Archimedes, however, proved so successful that the Admiralty reconsidered its decision and ordered a screw to be fitted to a sloop called the Rattler in 1842. Extensive trials were carried out with this vessel and a similar vessel fitted with paddles, the Rattler proving conclusively that she was fitted with the most efficient form of propulsion. Thus the screw propeller came into its own, the objection to interference to broadside guns being removed, and in the next few years several of our great three-deckers were fitted with auxiliary steam engines and screw propellers.

A typical first rate line of battleship at that time was the Marlborough. She was one of the best ships of the period when steam was still regarded as an auxiliary and the ships depended on their sails for making voyages. The Marlborough was 250 feet long and could steam at nine knots.

* * * * *

THE explosive projectile was now being experimented with, and at Sevastopol our ships were heavily damaged by Russian shell and the death knell of the old wooden battleship was sounded. The thick oak walls of the old ships could not stop the round shot and as long as this shot was the normal projectile, the Navy absolutely refused to countenance iron ships, it being considered impossible to repair a jagged hole in an iron plate.

The Armstrong gun invented in 1853, and the success of the explosive shell, changed these opinions, and the Admiralty was reluctantly forced to turn its attention to iron ships. The prejudice to

steam, however, still remained, and in 1859, Captain Alston, a navigator, in the preface to his "Seamanship Manual" stated:—

"Although we are living in what may be called the 'steam era', and our Navy is a steam navy, I have in this work wholly excluded the consideration of steam power, as, owing to the great cost of coal, and the impossibility of providing stowage for it, except to a limited extent, the application of steam power for ordinary purposes must be strictly auxiliary and subordinate, and its employment on general service the exception, not the rule. In bad weather the old order of things will reassert its supremacy, and any lengthened absence from port, or derangement of machinery, must always render the use of canvas imperative. Thus, then, the study and practice of seamanship are, happily, not yet a work of supererogation. If Britannia be destined still to rule the waves, it must be by the help of seamen as well qualified as those who won that supremacy for her, and we trust that the day is far distant when her trident shall be delivered into the keeping of mere artillerists and mechanical precisians".

* * * * *

THE first armoured vessel constructed of iron was the Warrior, built in 1860, marking the final clearing away of the old wooden walls and the beginning of the disappearance of masts and sails.

She was an armoured plated iron frigate, 380 feet long, 8,800 tons displacement, 6,000 I.H.P., 14½ knots speed. She was only a moderate success as a sailing ship and always proved better under steam. The hull was divided into a number of watertight compartments, and she was the first warship to be built with a double bottom; 92 watertight compartments fore and aft, and 57 in the bottom.

Her original armament consisted of forty-eight 68 pounders smooth bore, 95 cwt. each, firing shell or spherical shot. This was afterwards changed to two 110 pounder rifled guns on pivot mountings and four 40 pounders on the upper deck, thirty-four 68 smooth bore pounders being left on the main deck.

She was followed in 1865 by the Agincourt and other ships about 1,500 tons greater displacement. These ships were 400 feet

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long and carried seventeen 12 ton guns. The swan bow was abandoned and gave place to the ram bow, which was a revival of the beak of the old Roman galleys. She represents one of the last efforts to make an efficient sailing vessel out of a heavy armoured clad hull, but she was never any good as a sailing ship.

The problems which faced naval constructors at this period were manifold, guns becoming so large as to require machinery to work them, and the conflict between sail and steam was still in progress. The progress in guns resulted in the introduction of central battery ships; the heavy guns being mounted behind thick armour in a central citadel, and the smaller guns behind armour in different parts of the ship.

Later heavy guns were mounted in turrets, the merits of the turret having been proved in the action between the Monitor in her historic fight with the Merrimac, and to this is attributed the evolution of an entirely new type of battleship.

* * * * *

THE first seagoing turret ships were the Monarch and Captain, both fully rigged ships and carrying a large spread of canvas. The tragic loss of the Captain in the Bay of Biscay in 1870 finally put an end to the use of masts and sails in battleships, but they were continued in the smaller craft.

The armament of the Captain was: four 25 ton muzzle loading rifled guns, 11 inch bore; two 6.5 ton muzzle loading rifled guns, 7 inch bore.

The constructors now had to turn their attention to the production of a battleship which should rely on steam alone.

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THE Devastation was on the stocks when the Captain was lost, and in the face of much opposition from the older school of Naval Officers, it was decided to complete her without masts and sails, the seagoing qualities of the Devastation proving that the decision had been a correct one. She was very low in the water, displaced 9,300 tons, had an indicated h.p. of 6,500, and a speed of 14 knots. Her main armament was four 38 ton muzzle loading rifled guns, 12 inch bore. Following this ship several ships were laid down.

The Voltage was 3,080 tons displacement; 4,350 I.H.P., 270 feet long; built in 1874; speed 15 knots; armament ten 6 inch B.L.; two 64 pounders M.L.; two light guns and 10 machine guns.

The Bacchante was a 16 gun screw corvette, launched in 1879; 4,130 tons; 5,250 I.H.P.; speed 15 knots; 280 feet long; 45 feet broad and 23 feet draught.

In 1880 the British Battle Fleet was a collection of samples, no two ships being alike. It became recognized that the strength of the

modern fighting fleet would depend mainly on the similarity of the units comprising it. Ships should be of the same speed, etc., and uniformity would admit of simplicity in supplies and maintenance. Hence the policy of building men-of-war in classes was instituted and has been continued up to the present time.

* * * * *

THE first type built as a class was the Admiral class—the Rodney, Howe, etc., and these ships were the prototype of the battleships built for the Fleet during the following twenty-five years. They were 11,000 tons displacement and steamed 16 knots.

Rodney, 1880—Displacement, 10,300; length, 325 feet; breadth 68 feet; speed, 16.7 knots; armament, four 12 inch or 13.5 inch guns or two 16 inch guns; six 6 inch or ten 6 inch guns.

In 1880 steel began to replace iron, leading to a reduction in weight on account of its increased strength.

The Naval Defence Act of 1889 laid down a continuous building policy, the first ships being the Royal Sovereign class of 14,000 tons, and 17½ knots, which were followed by the Majestic, London, Canopus, Duncan and King Edward VII classes.

London class, 1898-1901—Displacement, 12,950; length, 418 feet; breadth, 74 feet; speed, 18¾ knots; armament, four 12 inch guns; twelve 6 inch guns.

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The Armoured Cruiser class commenced in 1883, and from then on various types of cruisers were evolved.

In 1877 the demand was felt for small fast craft, suitable for the utilization of the torpedo, which at that date was forcing its way into general notice as a weapon with great possibilities, and in 1877 the first torpedo boat was built by Yarrows.

This boat was a very small boat, but comparatively fast, being less than 100 feet long.

* * * * *

IN 1897, the Honourable Charles Parsons built an engined Turbinia. She was fitted with direct drive turbines and achieved a speed of 34½ knots, and as a result the Admiralty decided to fit turbines in the cruiser Amethyst and eventually in the Dreadnought, the Dreadnought being the first of the modern type of battleship.

In the earlier battleships, guns of various calibres were fitted as the main armament, the general arrangement being four 12 inch guns in two turrets, one forward and one aft, while along the upper and main decks were guns of 6 inch calibre.

After the King Edward VII class was designed, the main armament of which consisted of 12 inch, 9.2 inch and 6 inch guns, the Admiralty began to concentrate their attention on the all-big-gun ship, and the Agamemnon and Lord Nelson, laid down in 1904-05, were their first attempts at this.

King Edward, 1901-1904—Displacement, 16,350; length, 453 feet; breadth, 78 feet; speed, 18.9 knots; guns, four 12 inch; four 9.2 inch; ten 6 inch.

Agamemnon, 1904-05—Displacement, 16,500; length, 410 feet, breadth, 80 feet; speed, 18.5 knots; guns, four 12 inch; ten 9.2 inch.

They could not be classified as Dreadnoughts, but carried a main armament of four 12 inch guns and ten 9.2 inch guns, they being really improved King Edwards. They were the first ships fitted with a tripod mast, the idea of which dates back to the Captain era.

The Dreadnought, which was officially laid down in December, 1905, and completed ten months later, carried an armament of twelve 10 inch guns, and twenty-seven 12 pounders, and had a speed of 21 knots.

She was the forerunner of the modern battleship. She was the first battleship to be fitted with turbines, and she cost £1,800,000.

Dreadnought, 1905 — Displacement, 17,900; length, 526 feet; breadth, 82 feet; speed, 21 knots; guns, ten 12 inch; twenty-seven 12 pounders.

The Colossus was laid down in 1909, carrying an armament of ten 12 inch guns and twenty 4 inch guns. The main armament had been arranged to fire on either side, and it is interesting to note the bridges connecting the forward and after superstructures which are very similar to the construction of the Captain.

Colossus, 1909-1911 — Displacement, 20,200; length, 546 feet; breadth, 85 feet; speed, 21 knots; guns, ten 12 inch; twenty 4 inch.

The next development was increase in size of armament, and a class of battleship was completed in 1911, of which the Thunderer is a typical example. Her main armament consisted of ten 13.5 inch guns, all mounted in twin turrets on the centre line, the secondary armament consisting of eight 4 inch guns. These ships can fire all guns on the broadside or four ahead and four dead astern. In this class the ratio of length to beam is not quite so high as in the previous class. After the Thunderer class the King George V class were laid down, which were improved Thunderers.

Thunderer, 1911—Displacement, 22,500; length, 545 feet; breadth, 88.5 feet; speed, 21 knots; guns, ten 13.5 inch; eight 4 inch; 2 A.A.

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IN 1912 the Benbow class of four ships, Emperor of India, Iron Duke, Marlborough, and Benbow were laid down and completed in 1914, just prior to and in the early month of the War. The Iron Duke was Admiral Jellicoe's flagship at the battle of Jutland.

Iron Duke, 1913—Displacement, 25,000; length, 622 feet, breadth, 89 feet; speed, 21 knots; guns, ten 13.5 inch; twelve 6 inch; two A.A.

The chief change in these ships is the increased power of the secondary armament, this being necessitated by the rapid strides which were being made in torpedo craft: her secondary armament consisted of twelve 6 inch guns.

All battleships up to this date were coal burners but they carried a certain quantity of oil fuel, which could be used to supplement their coal supply, the oil fuel being burnt in conjunction with the coal.

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AFTER this class came the Queen Elizabeth class which were improved Benbows (Queen Elizabeth, Warspite, Valiant, Barham and Malaya).

Then came the Royal Sovereign class, these ships being laid down at the end of 1914 (Royal Sovereign, Royal Oak, Resolution, Ramilies and Revenge) and completed in 1916. These ships are armed with 15 inch guns, eight in number, mounted in four turrets, and have fourteen 6 inch guns as secondary armament. They burn oil fuel.

Resolution, 1914—Displacement, 29,000; length, 624 feet; breadth, 102 feet; speed, 23 knots; guns, eight 15 inch; fourteen 6 inch; two A.A.

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No more battleships were built during the War as they took so long to complete, construction during the war being centred around cruisers, destroyers, submarines, etc., and since the War two battleships only have been built for the Royal Navy, these being the Nelson and the Rodney. These ships were designed as a result of experience gained during the war, and it is interesting to note that their guns, which are of 16 inch calibre, nine in number, mounted in three turrets, are all placed in the forward portion of the ship; six can fire dead ahead; nine can fire on either beam and all guns can fire forward of beam, and abaft the beam to a certain extent.

The secondary armament consisted of twelve 6 inch guns mounted aft on either side of the main superstructure.

These ships were laid down in December, 1922, and only completed in 1927, so they took over four years to build. The range of these guns is about 20,000 yards, and the total weight of the broadside is 18,500 lbs. or $9\frac{1}{4}$ tons. In addition to the secondary armament there are six 4.7 inch anti-aircraft guns and several smaller guns.

Nelson, 1925—Displacement, 33,500; length, 660 feet; breadth, 106 feet; speed, 23 knots; guns, nine 16 inch; twelve 6 inch; six 4.7 inch A.A.

It should be noted that the Nelson and Rodney are not as large as the Hood, which is the largest warship that has ever been built, but whereas the Hood carried eight 15 inch guns, the Nelson and Rodney carried nine 16 inch guns.

Most of the ships of which I have spoken are for defensive purposes only. Their purpose being to deal with the enemies' battle-fleet in an effective manner, the work of taking care of commerce, etc., being left to cruisers and destroyers.

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Russia and Germany

By Lieut. H. G. Scott

IN THE first week of September, 1936, at the rally of the Nazi Party in Nuremberg, Hitler, the German leader, made a speech in which he attacked Russia and the Russian leaders in terms of scurrilous abuse for which it is difficult to find in history any parallel as between supposedly civilised nations in what is called a time of peace. It is possible that when history comes to be written that speech will be recognized as marking the virtual declaration of a great struggle between two races—the Slav race, led by Russia, and the Teutonic race, led by Germany.

There is little mystery as to the root cause of the struggle, if it comes. It is the old struggle for possession of certain sections of the world's surface and the wealth and power that go with such possession. In this case it is the renewal of an old duel. Almost certainly, if only for geographical reasons, the struggle must affect other races in Europe, and will probably affect the world, but in the first instance it must affect Russia and Germany.

In considering the position of the two main antagonists, it may be convenient to begin with Russia and to take as a starting point the execution in Moscow in the last week of August, 1936, of Zinovieff and some fifteen other prominent Bolshevik leaders, some of them being amongst the earliest leaders in the revolution of 1917. There seems to be doubt, even amongst most of those in Moscow who might well be expected to know, as to the real meaning of this grim episode. The men were executed on a charge of conspiring to kill Stalin, the Russian dictator. At the time of the execution there were various theories extant in Moscow as to what the affair really meant. Some certainly believed that there really had been a plot to kill Stalin, though this was not by any means a general opinion. Others thought that the explanation lay in the desire of the men now in power in Russia to get rid of most of the original Bolshevik leaders in order to pave the way for certain changes in the form and character of the Russian government and economic organization. Stalin himself did not seem to receive the credit or discredit for having the chief part in the death of his old associates. There were other theories also, but probably the truth was known only to a very small circle of the governing body in Russia.

* * * * *

CERTAINLY the new constitution adopted in November on the recommendation of Stalin, suggests that changes of a decided character are coming in Russia. The clauses in the constitution which allow of a limited amount of private property, both in land and in personal possessions, are a definite departure from the rigid theory

of Communism. They suggest, if the point may be expressed in terms familiar to Canadians, that Russia is in course of passing from what may be called economic prohibition to government control. In other words, a rigid dogmatic theory flying straight in the face of human nature is being modified for a compromise, under which the main lines of the nation's activities are still kept under government control and direction, but sufficient liberty is granted to individuals to satisfy the inevitable human instinct for such things as a private home, a small bit of land or garden, and a modest amount of private possessions to be called one's own. If, indeed, this is really the explanation of the changes in the economic law of Russia, they may amount to the best possible system for the Russian race in its present stage of development, and may pave the way for a comparatively rapid advance in Russian standards of living.

There are grounds for believing that the Russian revolution is following much the same course as most revolutions in history. These begin with a violent destructive outbreak designed to destroy an intolerable condition of oppression. Next comes the stage when the successful leaders of the outbreak proceed to try to put into effect various visionary theories intended to create a new heaven on earth in the course of a few weeks. These theories fail inevitably and are discarded. Thereafter the revolution moves on to the third phase, when the nation passes into a condition of comparative stability with certain great changes in one direction or another, good or bad. It looks as if the Russian revolution has now reached or is about to reach this third phase, though it is, of course, too soon to judge of this with any certainty.

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The new constitution contains also clauses dealing with personal liberty, which appear to accord to the Russian people complete liberty of speech, of the press, of meetings and demonstrations, and immunity from arbitrary police arrests or censorship of private correspondence. These clauses, however, do not appear to command much confidence in Russia itself. If they are given real effect to, they would mean a complete and drastic change in the whole atmosphere of Russia, as it has been from time immemorial. The general opinion seems to be that they are intended mainly for outward effect only, to impress not only the Russian people but divers foreign countries, and that they will exist on paper only for some time to come. That Stalin has before his eyes a great vision of a really free and progressive Russia, does not seem to be regarded by many as the explanation of these liberal provisions in the new constitution.

* * * * *

AT THE same time it is generally admitted in Russia that few, if any, persons really know the inner purpose of Stalin's policy, or what his ultimate objectives are. More and more as time passes, Stalin seems to be becoming a somewhat mysterious figure, withdrawn from association with the general public, all-powerful, yet occupying only a comparatively modest official position, closely guarded as any Czar, his picture displayed everywhere, while the man himself is little seen. Whether intentionally or not he seems to be moving steadily towards a position closely resembling that of the Czars, whom he has had a great share in destroying. At the same time there are some indications of the growth in Russia of a new ruling class under Stalin. Such a development would be quite in accordance with the history of revolutions. It is at least possible that the Russian stage may in due course produce a drama along the lines of Napoleon and his marshals, though perhaps it may need the test of war to create such a climax.

In the meantime it seems fairly certain that the standard of life in Russia is moving upwards from the depths of destruction and want which marked the extremest stage of the revolution. Food conditions are better in the chief cities, at any rate. The food shops of Moscow and the food peddlers in the streets suggest a comparatively normal business. They do not convey the idea of a hungry populace. Certainly the standard is still very low, but it is improving, and that improvement may go on at an increasing rate of speed.

The outward look of the people in the streets is one of drab, shabby uniformity with no trace of anything like a middle or upper class as they may be seen in most Western countries. The price of clothing and shoes is so high in comparison with the level of wages as to make this shabbiness easily understandable. Yet the people are

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not in rags, nor do they suggest an atmosphere of terror, though they are noticeably quiet, subdued, and orderly in their demeanour. The look of the children in the streets is that of normal young people, neither starved, nor frightened, nor badly behaved. Indeed, the children seem to be the most promising section of the Russian people at present. The coming of education to Russia may yet be recognised as the outstanding result of the Bolshevik revolution, whether the character of that education is efficient or otherwise, good or bad.

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THE standard of efficiency in the Russian factories also seems to be rising, though again it is still low. There is a suggestion about these factories of a straining of the nervous and intellectual capacity of the workers, as if they are being driven to the utmost of their ability. This would seem to be what might be expected under the circumstances. The Russian people have been for centuries a peasantry on the land with little or nothing of education or industrial experience. They have now been taken and, as it were, pitch-forked into a forced feverish industrial development. It seems inevitable that strain should result. The serious effect of this condition is that it leaves these industrial workers with nothing in reserve if an emergency occurs calling for intensification of effort, such as comes in time of war. This lack of reserve may cost Russia dear, if war is forced on her in the near future. If she gets time, the rising standard of skill and experience in her workers may relieve the strain, and make the Russian economic effort a formidable one. Certainly both the natural resources and the man-power are such as to suggest great possibilities.

In the meantime there is ample room for improvement. The state of the railways may be taken as an instance. The locomotives are mostly old and of no great power. Even those which seem fairly new are not nearly as powerful as the modern engines of other great countries. The passenger coaches are also not up-to-date, nor in good condition, and the road-bed with its sand ballast does not appear to be capable of standing very heavy traffic such as it might have to bear in time of war. The roads do not suggest that they could supplement the railways as transportation routes very efficiently, even if the necessary numbers of suitable motor vehicles were available. Judging by the comparative thinness of the streams of such traffic in the great cities, Russia's motor equipment is still far behind that of other great powers. It looks as if the Russians are still in the stage of learning to build and maintain the machinery of modern industrialism. Mass production will not avail them, if the individual craftsmanship necessary for day-to-day maintenance is not also present.

* * * * *

IT IS rather surprising to be told in Russia that there are no police. Such, however, is the pleasant fiction that is current. In the place of police there are merely "militia", but that militia seems to bear a strong family resemblance to the abhorred police. An impressive

exhibition of their organising ability was given at a great demonstration held in Moscow on September 1. It was held in the great Red Square in front of the Kremlin. One of the rather surprising features of this popular demonstration was the care taken to prevent the people watching the people demonstrate. For some hours before the demonstration began, the militia were in complete control of the Square and all traffic was stopped. Nobody could enter the Square to watch the demonstration without a ticket, and on the way to the Square holders of such tickets had to pass through six different lines of armed militia drawn across the streets. At each line both tickets and passports were closely checked. In the Square itself the spectators found that behind their seats was a line of armed militia. In front was another such line, with a line of soldiers beyond. The authorities in Moscow evidently did not intend that there should be any disagreeable or unauthorised incidents at their demonstration.

The demonstration itself was a wonderful piece of organisation. In the course of some two and a half hours more than half a million of the young workers of Moscow in ordered formations passed through the Square, carrying every kind of banner, emblem, and pictures of the Russian leaders, and throughout the whole of this march there was not a pause or a hitch in the marching, nor a sign of confusion or delay at any point. If all Russian staff work is on the standard of this display, it is exceedingly good.

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SHOP WITH
CONFIDENCE
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WHEN the Russian revolution started on its course of destruction in 1917, the first thing which it destroyed was the Russian army. In its fervour of cruel and bloody fraternity between peoples and death to all the old governments, the revolution found no place for the army and its discipline. Within twenty years the wheel has turned a full cycle, and now the Russian army is the most favoured, best cared for, and most efficient organisation in the country. Discipline has returned. The corrupt caste system which in Czarist days did so much to impair the efficiency of the corps of officers, has been destroyed. The Russian officers today are mostly young men, keen on their profession, anxious to learn the most scientific methods of warfare. The army is popular amongst the people. It is no longer regarded merely as the instrument of Czarist oppression. The mere fact that the men of the army are better fed, clothed, and cared for than any section of the wholly state-controlled nation, is enough to make it attractive to the young men of Russia. Also patriotism, which was scoffed at in the first days of the revolution, has again become the favoured doctrine of the government.

The Russian army, then is both large and formidable, but it suffers from one inevitable weakness for the present anyhow. The technical and industrial background of the country is incapable of giving to a great army the support which is vital to make good the wastage of modern war. Those inefficient railways, poor roads, industries which are only beginning to get established, with their workers already strained to full pitch—these are not the supports calculated to keep a great army up to concert pitch under the strain of war.

On the other hand, that background is improving with relative speed. The natural resources of Russia are huge. The reserve of man-power is immense. The youthful spirit of revolutionary enthusiasm and the re-kindled flame of patriotism may enable technical deficiencies to be overcome more swiftly than might be expected. Given time the Russian army may become capable of holding its own with almost any enemy, especially if it is fighting on its own territory.

* * * * *

TO COME from Russia into Germany at present is to experience a great change of atmosphere. One leaves the backward, semi-oriental, slightly haunted land of Russia, and finds in Germany a land which on the surface is the last word in modern efficiency, clean, orderly, busy, with an appearance of self-confidence and cheerfulness about the city streets, as if the Germans have shaken off the depression of defeat, and are going forward to full recovery of their lost greatness with a full belief in their present leadership as being able to secure them that recovery. The aspect of Germany after leaving Russia tends to make one ask: "Have those Slavs got even the ghost of a chance against these Teutons if it comes to war?"

Germany is humming with preparation, much as it may have hummed when Frederick the Great's army was being made ready; as it did in the years before Leipsic avenged Jena; as it was when Bis-

marck was making ready for his three wars of conquest; as it was in the period before 1914.

That is the surface impression of Germany today. Beneath the surface there is another picture. It is the picture of a slowly but steadily falling standard of living, the exact reverse of the Russian picture with its slowly but steadily rising standard. World conditions, national tariffs, the Jewish blockade of German trade in answer to German persecution of the Jews, the enormous expenditure on armaments—these are the causes of the fall in the German standard of living. With that fall goes also the inevitable resentment of a great and highly educated nation at the complete extinction of ordinary liberties. Only victory can atone for such privations and such dragging. Unless Hitler and the men round him can give Germany victory on a great scale, it seems only a matter of time till there is another explosion internally, and a rather savage one at that.

It is possible that the position as between Russia and Germany may be expressed by saying that Russia has great resources without the efficiency to use them, while Germany has great efficiency without the resources to use it on. The problem between them may be stated in two questions: Can Russia be ready? Can Germany wait?

* * * * *

WHILE the civil war in Spain has introduced new complications into the European situation, it has seemed probable that Germany in her search for a means of recovery and expansion has turned her eyes eastwards towards Russia. Inevitably an advance in that direction must affect other countries, and for the moment the line of advance seems likely to go through Czecho-Slovakia and the north-east of Roumania into the Ukraine. Czecho-Slovakia, therefore, becomes something like Belgium in 1914. She must face the first brunt of the struggle and face it with tremendous odds against her. If Teuton and Slav are to fight for supremacy, Czecho-Slovakia seems to be in something like the position of a sacrifice battery of the Slav race.

Poland also lies between the main antagonists, but Poland is perhaps in less leadly danger than the Czechs, if only because of her strength. As far as inclination goes, Poland probably regards both Russia and Germany with equal fear and hatred. Her Slav blood might incline her to favour Russia. Her political traditions lead her in the opposite direction to be one of the bulwarks of Western European civilisation against the semi-Asiatic flood coming from Russia. An armed, apprehensive neutrality seems to be the most likely attitude of Poland, though a German army passing eastwards into Russia by way of Czecho-Slovakia and meeting with anything like disaster there, might easily find Poland cutting its communications and contributing to a German retreat from Moscow. The distribution of the Russian army rather suggests that the Russians do not fear a Polish invasion, while they do expect a German attack through Czecho-Slovakia with a possible secondary attack by way of Finland in the north, the relations between Russia and Finland being anything but

good, partly at least on account of Karelia, which is one of those numerous areas in Europe where the population is made up of two different nationalities, and is therefore a source of disputes and friction between the countries bordering on it.

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WHILE the civil war in Spain has introduced new complications hostility, and the nations between them watch the gathering of the storm with intense anxiety, the rest of Europe is harassed by further complications. The Italian conquest of Abyssinia in defiance of her signed and pledged covenants has destroyed the co-operation between Italy, France, and Great Britain, which had offered a strong bulwark against German aggression westwards and south. Instead of the great Italian plan of central Europe united in an economic and political agreement with Italy and facing Germany on a frontier line not far different from that of the old Roman Empire, the prospect seems to be that the pre-War Triple Alliance is on the way to revival with the addition of Japan in the Far East. Such a revival holds great dangers for France, especially as France is acutely divided by internal dissension.

The Spanish civil war has inevitably added to the existing dangers, the net result of which is to create the possibility that the British Empire may at any time be faced with dangers not only extreme in themselves, but the more difficult to meet because of the fact that it is by no means easy to see what course duty, and honour, or even mere self-interest suggests that the Empire should follow. Clearly the outbreak of another general European war might shake the whole fabric of civilisation and disturb the balance of power not only in Europe but all over the world, including the Far East and the Pacific.

In face of such a situation the need for united action and energetic preparation for defence throughout the whole of the British Empire is in the highest degree urgent.

RUSSIA

The Revolution, Its Cause and Effect, and the Great War

By Captain A. E. White, M.C., R.A.F

IN SPEAKING on Russia, the topic is far too large to deal with in a brief lecture, far too large to cover in a score of lectures, so I must then confine myself to a brief history of that country in order to secure a background for the causes leading up to the war of 1914, the revolution, and last and not least my personal experiences while there.

We know little of Russian history due to the remoteness of that country to our own, and the lack of comprehensive Russian histories published in our language. History is the record of the present traced through the past—what man achieves, be it failure or success, what he thinks and thought and why he thought it

Applying this to the study of Russia, we have a people occupying half of Europe and about half of Asia. A people springing from races with marked differences in characteristics, both in physique and mentality, and differences in language. In the north, that is from Moscow to the Arctic, known as Novograd, is the Slav, uninfluenced by foreign invasions or migrations, large in physique, handsome, fair in complexion and, in the main, cultured, courteous and delightful to meet.

In Central European Russia about Moscow, the ancient principality of Moscow, we have again the Slav, modified by the Tartar invasion and domination of the great Mongol rules. The Moscovite in the main is a man of splendid physique. He is the aristocrat of Russia, and equals in culture and fine polish the nobles of France, and in appearance compares favorably with the people of the British Isles. In the South Ukraine again Slav, but modified even more than the Moscovite by conquest and migration from Asia. This portion of Russia has been the battle ground between, first, the Mongolian invaders and the people of western Europe, and second, between the great Turkish Empire of Suleiman the Magnificent, and the West. From time to time migrations of Armenians from Asia Minor, Tartars known as Cossacks from Asia proper, Poles, Czechoslavs and Rumanians poured into the country and were absorbed by the original inhabitants. In appearance, size and complexion the Ukranian is very unlike the people from Moscow and Novograd. He is smaller, though proud and yet shows the result of repeated conquest in his bearing. He appears less self-assertive and often servile, is dark and not of as fine a physique as the Northern Russian.

Again in Western Russia there is the Pole, the Finn, the Scandinavian, the Czech and the Rumanian. In the East is the Kurd, the Mongolian Tartar and some Chinese.

* * * * *

WHEN we find in the British Isles, four, shall I say separate, races living in close proximity, bound by a common government, speaking one national language, and yet each with a national ideal, national traditions and national characteristics, it would be indeed strange to find in a country so vast as Russia a comprehensive whole, a people one in ideal, in language and in characteristics. There are perhaps thirty races in Russia, one hundred and thirty dialects and peoples who are unlike in nearly every respect. How came these people to be bound together under one absolute ruler, the Tsar? That region now called Russia was, up until almost modern time, divided into nations. In the 14th Century the greater part of these were conquered by the great Mongol rulers, and for several hundred years were tributary states to the great Khans who ruled from Asia. However, in the 16th Century the Prince of Moscow was able to throw off the yoke of the Mongol. Then came the period of the four Ivans, of which Ivan the Terrible stands out as the most conspicuous

These Princes assumed the title Caesar, or Tsar, and not only established complete independence, but began to encroach on the neighboring countries. Great Tsars gradually subjugated Novagrad, and Ukraine, pushed the Scandinavians back to the Baltic, the Turk to the Black Sea, the Mongol to the East, extended into Poland, subjugated Finland and mastered that territory known as Russia in Europe as it was in 1914. Not only were these ambitious Tsars anxious to acquire territory, to acquire an outlet on the Baltic and Mediterranean Seas, but to westernize their people. Peter the Great



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stands as a colossal figure in Russian history, few if any rulers have equalled his achievements, and perhaps none has surpassed them. One might say that modern Russia dates from the beginning of his reign. During the reign of Alexander I, a contemporary of Napoleon Bonapart and Nicholas I, who died during the Crimea War, Russia reached its final territorial expansion in Europe, reached the border of India, absorbed the balance of the defunct Mongolian empire and secured a footing in North China, the latter during the reigns of Alexander III and Nicholas II.

* * * * *

THIS building up of Russia was entirely due to ambitious despotic sovereigns, not a great national expansion of people as was the case of the British Empire. Individual liberty and enterprise counted for nothing, but a great people coming into contact with the ideals and ideas of the western world must be by necessity influenced by these ideals. From about 1850 to 1861 the more liberal minded Alexander II emancipated the serfs. Russia of 1850 was much like England in the days of the Norman kings. An obvious difference existed in that England had no external influences which might hasten the securing of liberty and freedom to the individual, or any existing form of constitutional government where the sovereign power rested with the common people. In Russia, on the contrary, there were all of these.

The Russian who travelled abroad or cared to study political science had before him not an abstract theory or theories of government, but actual governments established and proven by time. He could and did visit the British Isles, France and the republics of the New World. Unfortunately he saw these forms of government from the most favorable viewpoint—seeing virtues and failing to notice defects. Returning to Russia, he naturally presented his views to the student class, which is a distinct social group in that country. The conception of political reform so carried home and advocated was not acceptable to the Tsar or the Russian noblemen. The strong hand and the long arm of the law made themselves felt in no uncertain manner. The Russian reformer persisted and the law became more drastic. The reform movement was driven underground, that is secret societies were formed, secret in that they were unknown to the government and often the members were unknown to each other, being known only to the head of the society. These societies were naturally not alike in aims and means, but varied from those advocating a gradual, moderate reform to the Nihilist, whose members advocated the destruction of all the governing class by, shall we say, murder?

To these reformers this was justifiable. To combat these societies the Tsars brought into existence the secret police—police that never wore a uniform, never made an arrest or appeared as a witness. Their object was to secure information which was passed on to the regular police, or Army, who pounced upon the alleged offender, who without trial, or a trial that was an insult to justice, found himself

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confined in one of the great prisons or exiled to Siberia. During the reign of Alexander III, a general policy of repression was carried out.

The Tsar felt that his father, Alexander II, had gone too far. To the casual observer he stood condemned, but if one were to look a little deeper perhaps the situation was not all one-sided. We sympathized with poor, blind Russia, but how many of us understood the situation as it existed. Sixty per cent. illiterate, ninety per cent. who knew of no government save a parental, despotic one. Small groups each with a distinct conception of government and social reform. Over a hundred millions of people, divided into races differing in appearance, in deep rooted customs and with a vast difference in mental outlook.

Was a representative group capable of ruling Russia within the realm of possibility? I would hesitate to say that it was. Yet something in the way of a representative, responsible body might have been encouraged or created. Alexander failed to forecast the future. He passed on to his successor, Nicholas II, a heritage of discontent, a society ruled by an iron hand, yet underneath active in its endeavour to force reform, with the nihilist and anarchist the accepted advocate of freedom, equality and justice.

* * * * *

NICHOLAS II, the Little Father of all the Russians, possessed many admirable qualities. His influence in world peace, calling the first world peace conference, was paramount. At home he ruled as a parental despot, wisely and well, but either failed to see the necessity of reform or, seeing it, allowed the reactionary influence of the previous reign to obscure his vision. True he summoned three Dumas, but failed to grant a constitution, or accept the advice offered by these.

In 1906 the Russian-Japanese war showed the weakness, not only of the Tsar and the ruling class, but Russia as a nation. It was not the defeats inflicted by the Japanese which counted, but the lack of organization and co-ordination within Russia. The great mass of Russian people, proud in tradition, were humiliated and put to shame by a Mongolian race whom they considered far their inferiors. The failure was not attributed to the courage of the enemy, but to the weakness and inefficiency of the Tsar and his advisers.

In the same period occurred the slaughter of thousands of Jews, particularly in the south of Russia. The Jew was the economic backbone of Russia—the most highly educated class, and capable of organizing the most efficient opposition to the ruling class. These facts appear to have been overlooked, yet 1917 was to see the revolution with the leaders largely Jews.

From 1906 on the Tsar was like a man playing with fire on an open powder barrel. At the same time the Balkan situation, and in fact the situation in all Europe, was becoming acute. Imperialistic

and economic influences were asserting themselves with war in the Balkans and the great nations in two hostile camps. The outlook was, to the close observer, anything but bright. Perhaps no nation was as well informed on the international situation as Russia. The Tsar's spies were everywhere and he, the champion of the Balkan Slavs, was, as I was led to believe, not only ready for war, but anxious for it. Two features probably influenced the Tsar and his advisers—one, the bitter racial conflict in Austria-Hungary, and two, the prospect of an outlet on the Adriatic. With these two the hope of uniting the conflicting racial divisions in Russia into a comprehensive whole, and last, but far from least, the diversion of the Russian mind from political and social reform led the Tsar to throw in his lot with Serbia.

The facts may never be known, but, having conversed with many in Russia, I am inclined to believe that the influence of Russia was for war, and feel confident that history will substantiate this opinion. I shall pass over the events of the war, save to note that Russia lacked organization. A vast army of nearly nine million, courageous, capable of great achievements, yet totally unprepared for the type of warfare that it was destined to meet. The Russian required continuous action—the spectacular appeals to him, for dash and go are his characteristics. He was destined to meet the German, or the Austrian, generalled by the German or both, who with that careful precision, efficient organization and ability to wait for the favorable opportunity, was in this war his superior. Trench warfare was ill-suited to the Russian. Inactivity resulted in depression, despondency and loss of morale. The German knew the Russian better than he knew himself, while the Russian failed to appreciate the German. After the first months the situation on the Eastern front was never in doubt.

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THE 1917 revolution was not a cause but an effect. The deep-rooted discontent; efficient and well-organized societies which had permeated the military and civilian population; the collapse of the army, and the disrepute in which the Royal Family had placed itself by accepting as a spiritual and temporal adviser, the so-called "Holy Devil", Rasputin, all contributed to the revolution. Early in 1917, the Imperial Guard—50,000 Cossacks—which guarded the Imperial Palace in St. Petersburg was moved to the Polish front to stem the advance of Von Hindenburg. Their place was taken by troops from South Russia.

The Cossacks were always loyal to the Tsar, while the troops from the south, or rather from Ukraine, had been influenced by the revolutionary party. This gave the enemies of the Romanoffs the desired opportunity. In no time the revolution broke out and the troops in St. Petersburg revolted and seized the Tsar and his family.

Kerensky organized a provisional government and the first Russian Republic came into being. The leaders, idealistic, well-meaning men, lacked experience. Equality, freedom and fraternity are unquestioned, but an administration must be practical as well as ideal-

istic. An attempt to reduce all ranks in the Army to an equal status resulted in the breaking down of respect for superior officers and loss of discipline. Shooting of officers, who had antagonized the rank and file, culminated in a general slaughter of the only ones capable of directing military operations; and although Kerensky attempted to carry on the war he was bound to fail. The army became a mob incapable of further military operations. Russia made an ignoble exit from the war.

It was perhaps humanly impossible for Kerensky to organize a Republic on a sound and durable basis. He had gone far, but had fallen far short of expectations. Perhaps if he had possessed a stronger personality, all might have been well, but as it was the more vigorous and aggressive Bolshevik won general support. In November, 1917, the second revolution occurred, and the present Soviet Republic was established. You are perhaps well acquainted with the principles of the Bolshevik government and the fundamentals of the Soviet Republic. The history of Russia from 1917 to date is so familiar, that it need not be mentioned here.

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MY EXPERIENCES in Russia are in the main like those of any soldier in war time. Naturally one had adventures, the near tragic and the amusing. Yet I saw things there which one hesitates to relate—the slaughtering of the innocent and the mutilation of human bodies—things which our British sense of justice could never sanction. Knowing the conditions under which the workers and peasants existed, I could understand their utter disregard for human life, their savage and almost inhuman desire to punish those who had oppressed them, or those whom they thought had oppressed them.

From Russia I carried away not only gruesome but many happy recollections. It was my privilege to meet men and women of education and culture. Perhaps some of the most delightful people that I have ever met I met in Russia. The dignified nobleman; the student with his love of the esthetic; the musician and the business man. I had the pleasure of meeting generals and soldiers of the rank and file, and last, but by no means least, the fun loving Cossack.

Russia is a country peopled by many races each with its peculiar characteristic, each with its pride in race. Time may make it a unified whole, but being no prophet I cannot say.

The Lustful Hand

By Miles Gordon

The lustful hand that signed with fateful pen
The invasion (to him) upon the lesser men
By force of arms might yet his will impose
With long sought vengeance on the English Rose.

We little thought our Empire's peaceful years
Through a lustful hand would end in war and tears
But unvanquished the allied armies of the line
Drove back the foe in defeat beyond the Rhine.

Immortal clay who through the centuries gave
To freedom's cause their all, but to themselves the grave.
Still by the Empire voice their deeds are blessed
Honored until the end where'er they rest.

Ruled by Justice, who can claim a nobler end
Than he who died that our Empire might defend
The social trust that surrounds the British throne
Though for him, individual worth may rest unknown.

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The Trend of Army Organization

THE badly equipped Canadian militia would not have a fighting chance in case of war, according to Lieut. Col. G. R. Pearkes, V.C., D.S.O.

The speaker deplored the antiquated equipment provided Canadian militia units, particularly in view of the fact that the enthusiasm of the men was unequalled in any country in the world with the possible exception of the volunteer forces of Germany.

Even the Territorial forces of Britain failed to reveal such enthusiasm for training as that displayed by officers, non-commissioned officers and men in the Canadian militia, the speaker asserted.

The highly intensified mechanized warfare assured for the future necessitated that forces be equipped with modern arms, machine guns and artillery to enable the infantry to receive adequate support, yet there was only one battery for every two battalions in Canada. To defend the frontier Canada had 126 infantry battalions and only 66 firing detachments of field artillery were trained last year.

Even under the most brilliant commanding officer, the Canadian militia would fare badly in an emergency, the speaker indicated, while expressing the view that the public should be brought to a realization of the situation.

* * * * *

THE tremendous difficulties facing a commanding officer obliged to attack in a future war were indicated by Col. Pearkes when he stated that in 1914 there were only 2.8 machine guns to 1,000 rifles, while today the attackers would be faced by 132 machine guns to 1,000 rifles. A straight frontal attack under these conditions would be slaughter.

Col. Pearkes indicated an attack would probably have to be carried on under cover of darkness or under a smoke screen. Otherwise there would be slaughter without hope of victory.

In the next war it would not be sufficient for the commander to make no mistakes, but it would be his duty to cause the enemy to make mistakes, the speaker continued. He must endeavor to mislead the enemy.

The role of the rifleman in the next war would be to hit a definite mark while the repulsing of an attack would be left to the machine guns and anti-tank guns. There would be a machine gun to every section.

"The weakness of the attack will be the great problem," the speaker said. "Centuries of experience have shown that the defence

is usually stronger than the offence. That is, it is easier to defend than to attack, although no war was ever won by a nation depending entirely upon defence."

Col. Pearkes expressed the view that attacks might not be commenced at dawn in future wars, as was almost invariably the case in the last war. Extreme mechanization of the armies would not lend itself to massed attacks as movements of vehicles would be restricted in narrow approaches and there was the danger of air attacks and the cutting off of supplies.

"The time and space factor is becoming more and more important," Col. Pearkes said. "The scales of war will turn in favor of the side which gets there first. One hundred men first at a position will be stronger than 1,000 men who arrive afterwards."

Col. Pearkes mentioned remarkable advances which had been made in mechanizing the British army, the development of anti-tank guns and more efficient machine-guns.

Soldiers, he said, would not march up to the front line in future. They would be taken up in armored cars.

—Calgary Daily Herald, 4th March, 1936

Ceylon

MORE than 90 per cent. of the 250,000,000 pounds of tea grown annually in Ceylon is consumed by the United Kingdom, and next to the British Isles, Canada is the second largest tea-drinking country in the world, Captain E. Melville Dover, manager of the Ford Motor Company in Ceylon, told members of the Alberta Military Institute.

Captain Dover was a former resident of Calgary and left this city 10 years ago for Ceylon. In briefly tracing the history of the country, the speaker said the Portuguese invaded Ceylon in 1505 and remained there until the Dutch conquered the island 140 years later. After the British arrived and established law and order in 1796, the country immediately started to prosper.

He explained that it was only after a disease had swept over the island in 1877 destroying all the coffee plants, that the raising of tea was entered into on a large scale. He said the growers had appealed to the planters in India for assistance, and after a few experiments, it was found the climate was suitable for the growing of the plant.

Since 1877 an average of 250,000,000 pounds of tea has been grown annually on 500,000 acres on tea plantations. More than 600,000 people are employed to harvest the product and these natives pick an average of 50 pounds of tea leaves daily. He said the leaves are dried before being put through a rolling machine, following which they are baked in large furnaces. More than one billion pounds of tea leaves are required to make 250 million pounds of tea, he said.

Captain Dover stated the rubber industry was the next important product of the country, more than 79,000,000 tons being raised annually. The tourist trade, he said, also brought the country considerable income.

In describing the people of the island, the speaker concluded by saying the Singhalese, who were the direct descendents of the Indians, were very cunning, and personal feelings toward class religion frequently caused considerable trouble.

Inspector E. W. Bavin, who is leaving next Wednesday morning to take over the position of Chief Preventive Officer in the R.C.M.P., stated it was with regret he was leaving the Alberta Military Institute, but hoped to visit the city frequently while stationed in Eastern Canada.

—Calgary Daily Herald, 19th September, 1936.

The Situation in India

BELIEF that in a forthcoming world crisis the granting of a measure of freedom to India would be of incalculable benefit was expressed by General Sir Edmund Ironside, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., recently appointed to the Eastern Command in England, in an address to the Alberta Military Institute.

"That is my own opinion after many years in India," General Ironside said. "I think that in the coming crisis if we have given a measure of freedom to India we will get help we would not get if we did not give India that freedom."

General Ironside likened the situation in India to that in South Africa. Britain conquered South Africa in 1902 and gave the country complete freedom in 1908. As a result, in 1914, the Boers suppressed a rebellion in South Africa, and sent large forces into the German colonies and to France. Hertzog had declared that England was the best friend South Africa ever had.

"If we had not given South Africa freedom in 1908 there would have been trouble in 1914," General Ironside asserted.

The speaker declared the granting of a measure of freedom to India would not mean the withdrawal of British troops. Complete

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freedom could follow later. "The taking away of British troops from that country would be a terrible thing, not likely to happen," he said.

The partial breaking down of the vexatious caste system of India was an achievement to the credit of British military policy in that country, the speaker believed. The old system whereby Indian army officers could never rise to a rank higher than major and were inferior to any British white officer was being abolished and Indian youths were encouraged to train with a view to becoming efficient gentlemen officers with no bar to the rank possible to attain. In place of the old system whereby education upon the part of Indian officers was discouraged, the opposite was true today.

* * * * *

THE Indian officers were treated as gentlemen. They were given the same pay as an officer in England so that they had money to engage in sports and to maintain officers' messes. It was in the messes that the caste system was not strictly followed, and there were associations between men of different religious beliefs which would have been impossible a few years ago.

General Ironside illustrated to his audience the difficulties arising from the varied religious views of the Indian populace by a recital of his efforts to fulfill a desire of Lady Willingdon, wife of his viceroy, that the prevailing cruel methods of killing animals be abolished. After years of persuasion, General Ironside finally managed to introduce a humane killer in the form of an electric stunner.

"The British are the only people who have treated the people of India properly and the only people who have given them justice," General Ironside said.

In reply to a question concerning Ghandi, General Ironside said that gentleman represented only a very small section of the population of India. He may have started as a saint but he soon fell into the hands of politicians and was used by them.

General Ironside said there was fighting on the Indian frontiers every year and, as a consequence, the country was an ideal training ground for troops. The reason for the outbreaks was the fact that wild tribes did not have sufficient food. Britain was adopting a policy of building roads and paying the tribesmen to build them thereby giving them some assistance when times were hard.

—Calgary Daily Herald, 4th March, 1936.

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Impressions from Geneva

DISSATISFIED nations constituted the greatest secular problem facing the world, Hon. Lieut.-Col. J. H. Woods, recent leader of the Canadian delegation to the League of Nations assembly, told members of the Alberta Military Institute.

Col. Woods pointed out that of the total area of the world constituting 55 million square miles, the British Empire, Russia, France, United States and China took up 34 million square miles. The remaining population of the world had to make the best of what was left.

Great Britain, Col. Woods thought, could not return the 800,000 square miles of former German colonies to Germany for the simple reason that people could not be bartered and the populaces of those colonies would not agree to being turned over to the control of the German government.

The opening of the doors of commerce and immigration to stifled and dissatisfied nations was one solution of the problem suggested. He expressed the hope that Canadians, residents of other countries in the British Empire and residents of the United States would open their hearts to more charity, to a saner view of life, and not the sole idea of keeping what had been grabbed. A spirit of "giving rather than getting" was needed.

A good deal was to be said for Italy in respect to her invasion of Ethiopia, not so much in defence, but in the light of what led her to commit the crime of breaking the covenant of the League of Nations and entering upon an aggressive war.

* * * * *

THERE is no doubt in the minds of many European statesmen that Mussolini was up against a situation which made it almost impossible for him to refrain from entering upon a foolish adventure," Col. Woods said.

Mussolini had given Italy the dignity of a nation, had made her people conscious of the nation's honor and the flag, and had built up the life of the people. But the trouble with any autocrat or dictator was the fact that he had to take the bad with the good. Consequently after five years of distress some countries—United States and Brazil in particular—closed their door to Italy's surplus population and the country, with little natural resources and a decadent industry, Mussolini found himself in the position he had to do something to keep the people's minds off their troubles. As was the case in similar conditions in the past, war was considered the best means of doing so. The invasion of Ethiopia was the result.

Britain looked upon the invasion of Ethiopia in the light of three possible results: (1) a quick victory by Italy and the occupation of the country; (2) an unexpectedly long war; (3) the defeat of Italy.

The effect of the first alternative result would be the holding in contempt by Italy of the rest of the world in the assurance that she had defied the world and won. If the second result came about Great Britain did not believe Italy could stand the financial strain; Italy would lose her influence and the Southern Europe situation would be thrown off balance. In the third alternative—the defeat of a white race by a horde of barefooted blacks—a serious situation would develop in countries where the black populace outnumbered the white populace. In this connection, Col. Woods made special mention of South Africa.

* * * * *

COL. WOODS paid tribute to the dignified and unselfish attitude of Great Britain evidenced by her representatives at the deliberations of the League of Nations. He paid special tribute to Sir Samuel Hoare who, he said, performed an act of great self-denial when, in the face of an irrational sentimentality, he gave up his portfolio. There was not a day in the progress of the League before Italy actually pressed her invasion of Ethiopia that Mussolini could not have got all the Laval-Hoare conference suggested. Italy adopted an attitude of absolute indifference and silence during the deliberations and Mussolini would not speak or would not listen.

Calgary Daily Herald, 20th March, 1936.

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THE ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE

Among the Recent Books

By Major C. A. Lyndon

"Haig"—By Alfred Duff Cooper. (Toronto: MacMillan's).

FIRST on the list of military volumes this year comes this pair of works from the pen of the British Secretary of State for War giving a full length picture of the life of the man who commanded the British Armies at the close of the Great War. There will be little argument, I am sure, with the statement that this is the outstanding military biography of the year. The prominence of Sir Douglas Haig not only in the Empire, but in the councils of the whole allied set-up, the bitter controversy which has raged around the question of his accomplishments, and the splendid manner in which Duff Cooper has assembled his story all merit the honor of first place among this class of book. There are still a host of military men who contend the story should never have been written, clinging to the age-old conviction that leaders of armies should lead armies and leave the controversy, particularly that of personal nature, to others. This does not detract, however, from the splendid quality of the work, nor does it overlook that there may have been a national necessity for such an answer to the unprecedented attack made upon Sir Douglas by the man who directed the Government during the days of his command. While the answer may not still the attacks, it does indicate that as usual there are two sides to the story.

The first volume tells the story of Sir Douglas' life from his childhood days, the son of a Scottish family, through schooldays and to his entry into the army. There is an interesting record of his service with the army in India, during which he did, beyond question, introduce new and novel improvements in training, and of his active service under General French in the South African campaign. While one may not be justified in reading any military brilliance into this part of the record, there would seem to be little doubt that Haig displayed commendable and exceptional qualities both as a peace-time staff officer, and as a member of Sir John French's staff in Africa.

It has been said that Haig undermined confidence in those superior to him. Whether or not this is a fair criticism depends upon the ability and efforts of those superiors. It is evident the young Haig was progressive and aggressive— one can easily understand how his innovations, coming from a junior, might well arouse antagonism from those above, and, when accepted, would increase his prestige at the expense of those immediately above. But is not criticism of that sort more commendation than criticism?

There is the story, too, of the early command of Sir John French in France, while Haig was in command of the First Army; then the story of the rift between the two commanders and personal friends,

and of the replacement of Sir John by his former staff officer. The first volume continues the story of the British Expeditionary Force through the Battle of the Somme—and gives Sir Douglas' resume of that costly and bitterly-fought and just as bitterly-condemned struggle. Unfortunately there is no means of measuring the full cost and full benefit of any single action, so linked are a score of factors. Without entering the controversy, however, one feels that the gains from the Somme action were of considerable importance; whether the man-power and other expenditure might have been more advantageously employed elsewhere will never be known.

The second volume carries the story of the war in France down to the Armistice. It will interest readers for the detailed story of the ebb and flow of Allied prestige during 1917 and 1918, and for the story of the events leading up to the appointment of Marshal Foch to supreme command in France following the Doullens conference in 1918. For a story which must have been steeped in personal animosities because of the varying national and personal characteristics involved, this part of the story is particularly well-handled, and much more acceptably presented than have been some of those which have presented the other side of the controversy.

One cannot help feeling from a reading of this biography how difficult Democracies make the task of those who lead their armies. Field Marshal Haig would have been little less severely criticised had his armies gone down to defeat than he has been by political leaders following the successful termination of the war in 1918. If the faults of the Commander-in-Chief were a small tithe of those attributed to him, one can only marvel at the British Army, and speculate on what it could do under capable leadership.

* * * * *

"Plumer of Messines"—By General Sir Charles Harington, G.C.B., G.B.E. (John Murray; Toronto, Clark Irwin).

ONE reviewer has said this is a sample of what real military biography should be, and with that I agree. It should be read by every officer who is interested in watching the gradual growth of a Field Marshal through all the steps from junior subaltern. Viscount Plumer joined the army before he was twenty, going immediately to serve in India. This was followed by service in Egypt, in the upper Cape, in the Matabele War, and in the South African War. It fell to Plumer's lot to command one of the converging forces which relieved Makefing. In all of these spheres of action the future Marshal appears to have displayed exceptional ability and energy, as is evidenced by the responsibility which each of his commanders in turn placed upon him.

Following the South African War, Plumer served on the Army Council, and upon being removed from that work by political exigencies went to command in Ireland. At the expiry of that command he was temporarily shelved, going to civilian pursuits, much to his

personal dislike; in 1911, however, he was called back to the army and given the Northern Command, where he served until, much to his joy, he was summoned to France in January, 1915, to take over the Fifth Corps. Five months later he assumed command of the Second Army, and the biographer records in just sufficient detail the stories of the Messines Ridge and Passchendaele battles, in both of which Second Army did well. One can recall vividly the elation which followed the great Messines exploit.

Service with the Second Army was broken in late '17 by dispatch of General Plumer to Italy to command the British troops which had been sent there to check the German offensive which had rolled up the Italian Army. In March, 1918, however, he returned to the Second Army, in the Ypres salient, where he met the final attempts of the 1918 offensive, and from where he moved to the Rhine on the collapse of the German Army.

General Plumer was in command on the Rhine until April, 1919, and his biography includes an intensely interesting picture of the conditions east of the Rhine during that period. In 1919 he was ordered to Malta to the Governorship.

It is to be hoped this exceptionally vital story of the life of one of Britain's most capable and vigorous army leaders will not be lost to the younger officers of today because of the wide interest which his Commander-in-Chief's biography has aroused at about the same time.

* * * * *

"The Nation at War"—General Ludendorff. (London: Hutchinson).

THERE is no small amount of speculation at the moment as to the character of the next war. Coupled with that is some concern as to the attitude of Germany toward war in general. One could hardly imagine a more fitting time for the appearance of a book by one of the outstanding German army commanders of the Great War, particularly when that book purports to set out a complete picture of what will be required of the nation which seeks success in the joust of arms.

General Ludendorff's treatise has been called an exposition of the totalitarian theory of war, and that, in brief, is what it turns out to be—a delineation of the extent to which every part of national economy must be tuned to the task of conducting war. It impresses upon one the truth that successful conduct of the next war will include the subservience to military necessity of every other phase of national life, and that the day of small regular or professional armies, which may go out and win a war while the nation in general carries on as of old at its peace-time pursuits, is gone forever; war has reached the stage where, once it breaks, it becomes the one factor upon which national existence will depend.

This book will be read by civilians as well as by military men, because it sets forth admirably the enormous task which will confront

the democratic nations if a new struggle does break loose on the world. To most of us the book savors pretty much of what we once called Prussianism, but which today (because that term was supposed to have been erased from world affairs by the last war) we know as Fascism or Naziism. Regardless, though, of its source or name, the subject, that of national unity or totalitarian preparedness, will, if it can be maintained, make an enemy more difficult to defeat than in our past wars. It might be well for us to keep in mind that this sort of preparation on the part of nations which may be our enemies in future may force us to adopt in self-defence some of the principles advocated by Ludendorff.

* * * * *

"The Far Eastern Crisis"—Henry L. Stimson. (Toronto: Musson's).

THE Far East, with its increasingly frequent outbreaks on the Soviet-Manchukuo border and its Sino-Jap flare-ups, has caused the world no small amount of uneasiness during the past half-decade, and has brought about a fear that from that corner of the globe will come the flash that will set off the next world-wide explosion. For a better understanding of many of the causes of the friction, and a better grasp of the extent to which the nations of the western world are involved and interested, one can do no better than become acquainted with this record by the former Secretary of State in the United States.

Mr. Stimson writes clearly and understandingly of the developments in China and Japan during the years he occupied the State Secretary's office, from 1929 to 1933. He is particularly qualified to deal with his subject because no other four years since the late war have witnessed as many really momentous developments in the East as these four. The period witnessed the setting-up of the puppet state of Manchukuo by Japan through the absorption of the Chinese province of Manchuria, and the actual, though undeclared, war between Chinese and Japanese armies in the Shanghai area in the early months of 1932. Never had the traditional American policy of the 'open door' in China been so directly challenged as by the aggressive Japanese action on both these occasions, and the American government found itself faced with a major international crisis. Readers will appreciate the very clear picture which Mr. Stimson gives of the day to day events leading up to the Shanghai flare-up, as well as his story of the unexpected and vigorous defence of Shanghai by the Chinese Nineteenth Route Army, and they will find, as well, many new angles to the American view of the Far Eastern problem.

Canadians will read with interest Mr. Stimson's comment upon the relationships existent at the present time between the United

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States and the British Empire, and may be somewhat surprised to find one of the highest cabinet ministers of our 'isolationist' neighbor voicing the opinion that frank co-operation between the two great English speaking nations is possible, is becoming more pronounced as time passes, and is welcomed by his fellow-countrymen as a good omen for the peace of the world.

* * * * *

"Togo, and the Rise of Japanese Sea Power" — Edwin Falck; (Toronto, Longmans).

THE little Kingdom of the Mikado has blossomed forth from the realm of mediaevalism into the ranks of the World Powers in a manner that smirks just a little of the romantic—to the western world it has been a matter of considerable amazement. Behind that amazing rise to world prominence one of the most potent factors has been the Nipponese navy; and credit for the prestige of that sea force goes to the diminutive Admiral Togo who instilled into all ratings the fervor which made possible the destruction of the Chinese fleet in the actions at the Yalu and at Wei-Hai-Wei, and who in so doing had awakened among the Japanese a realization of their need for a naval force—a realization that led to the development of the force which bottled up Port Arthur and then steamed out to destroy the fleet sent out by the Tsar to succor his Asiatic holdings.

In his biography on Admiral Togo, Captain Falck, former American naval officer has presented a brilliant record, not only of this national hero, but of the growth of the nation which he typifies. As would be expected of a naval commentator he has done a particularly fine job in depicting the naval engagements which marked the rise of Togo's fleet. Military readers will find the volume of as much interest to them as to their naval cousins.

* * * * *

"Crazy Campaign"—Mortimer Durand (Toronto. Musson's)

THERE were so many surprises, or perhaps it would be more exact to say, incongruities, in the recent Italo-Ethiopian campaign that readers will be pleased to pick up books that will detail the facts denuded of the propaganda with which news from both sides has been seasoned. To date the only information which has come this distance has been largely from the pens of the British and American correspondents who followed the armies. Mortimer Durand, who carried the news assignment of the Daily Telegraph, followed the advance guard of Il Duce's invading force, and now in "Crazy Campaign" records his personal picture of the campaign.

The theme of the Durand story is actually just what the title implies—that the campaign was a crazy one, in which if either side had done the things which armies should do the story might have been altogether different. For instance, he stresses the failure of the Italians to provide any protection for their long lines of communica-

tions, and then records how utterly the Ethiopians failed to grasp the grand opportunity of crippling the invasion by harassing those communications. In actuality the disorganized horde which strove to defend the mountain passes forsook the traditional guerilla warfare of the native and battered themselves against trained and well-equipped and armed units. Durand stresses how completely unprepared were the tribal bands of Haile Selassie, unable as they were to import modern rifles or the ammunition which they needed for the few ancient arms which were available for distribution to troops headed for the front. With almost unbelievable unanimity the several Rases abetted this shortcoming by choosing to fight the Italian and his Askaris on the latter's terms rather than waylaying him by harassing attacks in the precipitous mountain passes through which the advance lay.

On the other hand Mr. Durand gives very little credit to the Italians for any outstanding accomplishments during the campaign. The success of the campaign seems to have been assured chiefly, apart from Ethiopian incompetency and treachery, by the splendid propaganda bureau, which was responsible for wholesale desertions of the Negus' followers, and to the demoralizing effect of several hundred modern aircraft on a people who for the most part had never before seen a plane, and who were therefore inclined to look upon this new arm as invincible.

While the narrative does not go into any detailed history of the campaign it does provide a very comprehensive and readable story of the whole show.

* * * * *

"Seas of Adventure" — E. Kebble Chatterton. (London: Hurst & Blackett).

THIS volume is one of the most interesting volumes of late-war activity that has come out in recent months. It is a well-done story of the naval, and accompanying military, activities in the Mediterranean during the Great War, and in the hands of Mr. Chatterton the story has carefully knit together and pleasingly presented.

It is easy at this distance to forget just how vital a part the Mediterranean and the forces which served there played in the final verdict of 1918. One has only to recall, however, the fact that here was one of the vital lines of Empire communication over which men and supplies were daily moving both east and west, that the Gallipoli campaign required a freedom of movement over these waters for reinforcements and supply, that the Serbian and Saloniki, the Palestine and Mesopotamia 'shows' were all based, indirectly at least, on it, to impress again the importance of it being kept clear of enemy threats. The efforts so to keep it clear provide the material for this interesting piece of writing.

Mr. Chatterton tells a detailed story of the manner in which the area was divided up among the navies of the Allies for patrol, and of

the manner in which each force set about to trap U-boats which were preying upon troop and supply ships. It was an area of high adventure, with raids by Austrian squadrons, and by our old friends the Goeben and Breslau, and with an entire Serbian army being evacuated through the Adriatic from under the eyes of the Austrian fleet, and the author has made a story of real adventure from it. It is noteworthy that he has paid what appears to be well-warranted high praise to the scattered British naval units and motor launches and drifters for their initiative and daring, while the record of the co-operating Italian units does not bespeak a sea force that would now be able to clear the Mediterranean of all except itself.

The book is well authenticated, and the Chatterton style makes it extremely easy to read.

* * * * *

"Canada and the British Army."—C. P. Stacey (Toronto: Longman's).

THE volume of discussion from press and platform during the past half-decade on the subject of national defence in Canada has served, more than any other one feature of Canadian life, to indicate that Canadians are passing through a very important stage in national development. If it were not for the fact that Canadians feel, as a result of Canadian contribution to the Great War and as a result of the ever-increasing part the country is taking in world trade, that they have become a nation in place of the old colony of the eighteen-nineties, there would have arisen no cause for discussion on ways, means and policies of defence; Canada would still be colonial, acknowledging her dependence on the Mother Country. The new status has come to stay, however, and has brought with it a burden of responsibilities as well as the enthusiasms of nationalistic pride. The continued discussion of the defence problem can be assessed as nothing more than the efforts of Canadians to fit themselves into the new order, and to determine which are the responsibilities which rightly accompany that new status, and how those responsibilities are to be borne.

Because of this situation in the minds of our country men, the present is a propitious time for the publication of Dr. Stacey's volume on the service which has in the past been rendered in Canada by the British Army. It traces the development, not only of the Canadian defence forces, but of responsible government in British North America. The two have developed hand-in-hand, with the government growth outstripping that of militia or defence forces, as is to be expected in a nation of pacific intent. Dr. Stacey has presented a detailed and interesting picture of taxation, trade and political conditions in England during the early 1880's which led to an insistent clamor for the withdrawal of troops from the colonies. The Crimean War led to the withdrawal of most of the British troops from the country, a move made possible by the friendly attitude of the early Canadians. In the absence of the British forces, plans were drawn up for a militia force of four thousand, the forerunner of the present

defence force. When Gladstone commissioned Lord Cardwell, in 1868, to reorganize the British Army, he set under way the move to definitely restrict the employment of British Regulars in colonial garrisons. Journal readers will find a particularly interesting story in the record of the growth of a feeling of Canadian unity through the threats from the south during the American Civil War and the later Fenian Raids, and in the record of preliminaries to Confederation.

* * * * *

"Waugh in Abyssinia."—Evelyn Waugh. (Toronto: Longman's).

EVELYN WAUGH will be known to a good many readers of the Journal for his journalistic work for leading British newspapers; he has now turned his abilities to the channel of war-reporting, and in his "Waugh in Abyssinia" has set down his impressions of the Italo-Abyssinian campaign as he saw it from the Abyssinian side. The picture is invaluable, because Waugh appears to have made himself familiar with both the country and its people before going to Abyssinia; the campaign itself appears somewhat ludicrous, and the telling of it just a bit humorous. It might be that if those engaged had been able to see the campaign in the same light as did the sidelines, there would have been less of the gradiose pomposity which characterized both forces prior to the flight of the Negus, and which still leads the victors on to new dreams of world dominion.

Mr. Waugh was one of a group of foreign correspondents who went to Abyssinia to 'cover' the war from within. His efforts and those of his contemporaries to get to the scene of any fighting, the continual struggle to get news and travel permits out of Abyssinian officials, the hectic trips to the Harar front, then the rushing back to Addis again to follow up news of victories on the northern front, all are related in a fashion most readable, while at the same time most damaging to any ideas we may have had of modern Abyssinia. He does contribute a valuable chapter on the pre-campaign Ethiopia, and places the real cause for the failure of the Abyssinians to check the invasion on the failure of the Abyssinians to assimilate the conquered tribes of their subject provinces. It is an enlightening angle to a problem that has been brought prominently to mind by the crumbling of the tribal armies before even the full weight of the Italian advance had been employed. Mr. Waugh advances a theory, too, that Il Duce originally intended no real invasion of the hinterland, but that, instead, he had found less warlike means of gaining control, and he charges the British Government and its policy of encouraging Haile Selassie to rely on the League of Nations with the responsibility for the actual military campaign.

The book is finished off with a chapter on conditions in Abyssinia immediately following the occupation of Addis Ababa, a picture which does much to allay any misgivings as to the manner in which the occupation was carried out. It seems that the main result of the flight of the Negus, in the early days of the post-campaign period, was the enthusiasm of the subject tribes at their release from the dominance of Addis. All in all the volume is a vital addition to the record of the short but decisive campaign.

Canadian Legion Appeals to Institute for Co-operation

IN BEHALF of the Canadian Legion I appreciate this opportunity to extend greetings to the Officers and members of the Alberta Military Institute.

Many of you are aware that the main activity of the Canadian Legion is looking after the ex-service men who are in need. This is very important work and while much more should be done yet on reviewing the records it would seem as if a little progress is being made.

As a result of our representations to the federal Government some amendments were made during 1936 to The Pension Act and also The War Veterans' Allowance Act. The Pension Act amendments were not far reaching but necessary provision was made in some cases where a larger measure of justice was thought advisable. Our representations were mainly along the lines of a reduction of age for War Veterans' Allowance.

Many of you are aware that this legislation requires the applicant to show his need and also of course prove his service. We asked for the allowance to be available for those who have reached the age of fifty years.

The Act was amended to include those who have reached the age of fifty-five who served in a theatre of actual war and are incapable of maintaining themselves because of disability, pre-aging, and general unfitness. This helps some and we are glad to report that as at December 31st, 1936, the Board had approved 515 cases under the above mentioned amendment. We believe this is the most important legislation affecting ex-service men and it is our desire to press for further amendments so that a larger number would be to some extent provided for.

* * * * *

I WOULD like to bring to your attention the work of our Dominion Service Bureau. This work is not as widely known as it should be and the following report indicates the efforts we make on behalf of those who served:—

Report of Activities for Period January 31, 1936, to December 31, 1936.

New cases received	1,403—	Monthly average	116.08
Old cases re-opened	295—	“ “	24.58
Cases disposed of	2,560—	“ “	220.83
Pension Claims adjusted	620—	“ “	51.66

THE ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE ANNUAL JOURNAL

Medical Treatments and other adjustments	302—	“	“	25.16
Letters written	15,776—	“	“	1,314.66
Files reviewed	12,969—	“	“	1,080.75
Total files dealt with ..	23,517—	“	“	1,959.75
Total Active Pension Cases on December 31, 1936	3,349			
Number of adjustment Officers	3—			

Note: The number of treatment and other adjustments set out in item 5 do not form part of the official record of pension claims adjusted.

While we report some progress, yet, one cannot lose sight of the necessity for doing more. There are approximately 50,000 unemployed ex-service men in Canada, and their problem is beyond the stage of a helping hand from a comrade and should be separate and apart from any charitable activities. In other words, we claim these men should be a responsibility of the Dominion Government.

Quite a large number of our comrades have little or no medical history on their files and we encounter many difficulties in our efforts to obtain reasonable consideration for a large number who have a good service record.

Might I request that the members of the Alberta Military Institute individually and collectively, try to obtain some employment for the unemployed ex-service men at every opportunity.

I have briefly tried to outline our general objective and indicate some of the work we are trying to accomplish.

I would appreciate very much the support of your members so that our efforts might be more successful.

A. WALKER,
President, Calgary No. 1 Branch, Canadian Legion.

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His Excellency as the Institute's Guest

ON SEPTEMBER 3, 1936, the Institute had the honor of entertaining at luncheon His Excellency the Governor-General who, with Lady Tweedsmuir, visited the city in the course of their official tour of the Dominion.

After luncheon, His Excellency spoke briefly as follows:

"It gives me great pleasure to be entertained by the Alberta Military Institute. Of the many pleasant things that have happened to me since I came to Canada none has given greater pleasure than the renewing of contacts with old friends in the Service. Contacts with Scotland are so innumerable that I never stop at a railway station but I find I know someone who was a friend or whose relatives I knew in the Old Country.

"I find that your chairman (Lieut.-Col. Harry Pryde) comes from Fife where I spent thirteen years.

"When I renew contacts with Service friends I knew in the South African War or the Great War I realize as I never realized so fully before Canada's contribution to the allied victory. I recall Vimy Ridge, the attack of August, 1918, and I knew that the Canadian troops were regarded as the spearhead of the British arms"

Since that time, His Excellency said, he had realized that fact more fully. When he attended gatherings of ex-servicemen and noticed the decorations they wore and when he saw war memorials with rolls of those who never would return, he realized the greatness of Canada's effort and the character of her people.

Canada and Great Britain, said His Excellency, have this in common; that they are both militant nations without being military. They were not interested in military paraphernalia for its own sake. Yet at times in her history, such as the war of 1812, Canada had shown herself to be "quick off the mark". Britain also had risen always to the needs of crises. Nevertheless, people think of other things besides defence and have no admiration, as some nations have, for the trappings of war.

Speaking as Commander-in-Chief, His Excellency said:

"Allow me to say that I have been enormously impressed with one thing—the admirable public spirit and keenness found in the Canadian Militia. Officers give their time and often from their own resources to their units in improving their efficiency. I have been struck with the unselfish devotion of officers to their regiments. That is a spirit one cannot praise too highly".

Red Deer Branch

Though the active membership of the Red Deer Branch of the Alberta Military Institute is small, we have an interested "associate" list of friends who regularly attend our meetings, some of whom have given very interesting lectures themselves.

Lectures have been given by the following, during the season 1935-36:

Lieut. H. G. Scott—"The European Situation".
Major J. K. Lawson—"Palestine Campaign".
Lt.-Col. G. P. Elliot—"Britain, Egypt and The Mediterranean".
Lt.-Col. C. W. Devey—"Trend of Army Organization".
Major-General, the Honorable W. A. Griesbach, C.B., C.M.G.,
D.S.O., V.D.—"The Outlook".
P. E. Graham, Esq.—"Ghengis Khan".

We wish to express our appreciation of the help given us by the parent organization in sending speakers at times and sending annual magazines.

The list of members at the end of the year 1936 is as under:—

Capt. F. A. Appleton.
2nd Lieut. A. Allen.
Capt. J. Ballantyne, M.C., Director.
Capt. R. C. Bunn, Director.
Major W. J. Botterill, Director.
2nd Lieut. F. Brown.
Major W. T. H. Cripps.
Capt. A. E. Cameron.
Lieut. F. deC. Callender.
Lieut. L. M. Colpitts.
Capt. J. Drever, Vice-President.
Lt.-Col. G. P. Elliot, President.
Major R. E. Fiske, D.S.O.
Capt. R. S. Gillespie, M.C.
Lieut. H. Haste.
Lieut. E. Hives, Director.
Lieut. C. D. Husband.
Capt. R. E. Jones.
Lt.-Col. R. C. Lister, M.C., M.M., V.D., Secy.-Treasurer.
Lieut. R. M. Parsons.
Lieut. W. Parsons.
F/O R. S. D. Roe.
Lieut. R. W. Whyte.
N/S. Mary McCullough.
N/S. O. Findlay.

R. C. LISTER, Lieut.-Col.

Annual General Meeting

THE Annual Meeting was held in the Garrison Officers' Mess, Calgary, on the evening of January 21, 1937, with the President, Lieut.-Col. H. Pryde presiding and, first, presenting his report* for the year 1936.

It was moved by Lieut.-Col. D. Ritchie, M.C., seconded by Major J. W. Littleton, that the report of the President be adopted, and this was carried.

Auditor

The report of the Institute's auditor, Lieut. F. J. Butler, was read by the secretary, and it was agreed on the motion of Lieut.-Col. D. H. Tomlinson, seconded by Hon. Major the Rev. G. W. Kerby, that it be adopted.

Financial Statement

The financial statement for 1936 was presented by the Treasurer, Mr. S. L. Miller. Moved by Col. E. R. Knight, seconded by Major A. W. Park, the statement was adopted.

Library

The report of the hon. librarian, Capt. W. P. Taylor, was read. Directors recommended that a sum not exceeding \$100 be authorized for library purposes for 1937.

Moved by Col. D. G. I. Cunningham, seconded by Lt.-Col. N. D. Dingle, that the report be adopted, that a sum not exceeding \$100 be authorized for library purposes for 1937, and that the thanks of Institute members be extended to Capt. Taylor for his conscientious and successful efforts in their behalf. Carried.

Cadet Corps

Report of the Cadet Corps committee for 1936 was presented by Capt. H. E. Wright, chairman of that committee.

Directors recommended that \$250 as requested by the committee, be voted for 1937, to be expended at the discretion of the incoming directors, and the recommendation be referred to the incoming directors.

The report was adopted and the above sum authorized on a motion of Major L. W. Miller, seconded by Lt.-Col. N. D. Dingle, and it was unanimously carried that a grateful vote of thanks be tendered to the Cadet Corps committee, and to the Cadet Corps instructors, Lieuts. H. C. Neal, and Lieut. H. Ward, for their work in this connection. Carried.

*Appendix "A".

Clerical Assistance

The directors recommended that a sum not exceeding \$350 be authorized for clerical assistance to the Secretary and Treasurer for 1937, to be allotted at the discretion of the incoming directors. Moved by Lt.-Col. D. H. Tomlinson, seconded by Major R. N. W. Shillington, that this sum be authorized. Carried.

Annual Journal, 1937

The directors recommended that the publication of the annual Journal be continued for 1937. Moved by Col. E. R. Knight, seconded by Lieut. L. St. J. Miller, that the annual Journal for 1937 be published. A vote of thanks was extended to Major A. C. Ballantine for the excellent manner in which last year's Journal was edited. Carried.

Vimy Dinner

The directors recommended that the Vimy Dinner be held on Friday, April 9th, 1937. This was approved on motion made by Lieut. T. W. Collinge, seconded by Major K. B. Lockett. Carried.

Armistice Ball

The directors recommended that the Annual Ball in commemoration of the signing of the Armistice be held in 1937, and that the date and place be left with the directors. Moved by Major J. W. Stagg, seconded by Col. D. G. L. Cunningham, and carried, that this date be approved. Carried.

Garrison Officers' Mess

The directors recommended that the directors for 1937 be empowered to enter into an agreement with the Garrison Officers' Mess committee for 1937 regarding the use of rooms by the Institute and charges for refreshments at evening meetings. Moved by Major E. W. Miller, seconded by H¹Major N. M. Plummer, that this recommendation be approved. Carried.

Garrison Theatre Night

The directors recommended that a Garrison Theatre night be held during 1937, provided it meets with the approval of the District Officer Commanding and is desired by the Officers Commanding the units in the Calgary garrison. Moved by Lt.-Col. D. Ritchie, seconded by Capt. J. A. Suttle, that the matter of a Theatre Night be left with the incoming directors. Carried.

C.O.T.C. Scholarships

The directors recommended the continuance of an Institute Scholarship for C.O.T.C. Cadets, in an amount not to exceed \$75 subject to any conditions that the incoming directors may make with University authorities and the Edmonton Military Institute, in consultation with the District Officer Commanding, M.D. No. 13. Moved

by Hon. Major G. W. Kerby, seconded by Lt.-Col. D. H. Tomlinson, that before arrangements are completed the recommendation of the directors be referred to a general meeting with regard to a grant. Carried.

Affiliated Branches

The secretary advised that the Institute had met all the requests of the branch at Red Deer for speakers and that necessary expenses of these gentlemen in visiting Red Deer had been met by the parent organization. It was also advised that the directors had approved of dues from this branch being waived during 1937. It was agreed to include report of Red Deer branch in annual Journal.

Press

It was moved by Lieut. S. L. Miller, seconded by Major A. J. Davis, that a vote of thanks be extended to The Calgary Daily Herald and The Albertan for their co-operation and assistance during 1936; also to the management of the Palace Theatre for their many courtesies. Carried.

NOMINATION OF OFFICERS, 1937

The secretary reported that in accordance with the Constitution and By-Laws (Section VII), all members had been notified of the conditions pertaining thereto, and were requested to forward their nominations. No nominations had been received through this channel.

The President had appointed a nominating committee, which had submitted the following nominations:—

Patrons

His Excellency, The Governor-General of Canada.

His Honour, The Lieutenant-Governor of Alberta.

The Right Hon. W. L. Mackenzie King, C.M.G., P.C., M.A., LL.B., LL.D., M.P., Prime Minister of Canada.

Hon. Col., the Right Hon. R. B. Bennett, E.D., P.C., K.C., LL.B., LL.D., M.P.

The Hon. Ian A. MacKenzie, P.C., M.A., LL.B., M.P., Minister of National Defence.

Major-General E. C. Ashton, C.B., C.M.G., V.D., Chief of the General Staff.

Major-General C. F. Constantine, D.S.O., Adjutant-General.

Lieut.-General Sir A. C. Macdonell, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O.

Major-General A. H. Bell, C.M.G., D.S.O.

Major-General, the Hon. W. A. Griesbach, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., V.D.

Colonel G. E. Sanders, C.M.G., D.S.O.

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It was moved by Lt.-Col. D. H. Tomlinson, seconded by Lt.-Col. C. W. Devey, that the list of patrons as submitted be approved. Carried.

Honorary President

Brigadier D. W. B. Spry, O.B.E., V.D., District Officer Commanding, Military District No. 13.

Appointment was approved on motion of Col. D. G. L. Cunningham, seconded by Lt.-Col. D. Ritchie.

Honorary Vice-Presidents

Lt.-Col. J. N. Gunn, D.S.O., V.D.
Col. D. G. L. Cunningham, M.C., V.D.
Major L. W. Miller, D.S.O.
Lt.-Col. D. Ritchie, M.C.
Lieut. H. C. Farthing.
Col. E. R. Knight, V.D.
Lt.-Col. D. H. Tomlinson, M.B.E., V.D.
Major J. W. Littleton, M.C.
Lt.-Col. H. Pryde.

Moved by Major J. W. Littleton, seconded by Lieut. W. E. Broadley, that the above officers be appointed Honorary Vice-Presidents for 1937. Carried.

FOR PRESIDENT:—

Lt.-Col. N. D. Dingle.

FOR VICE-PRESIDENT:—

Col. H. C. A. Hervey, V.D.

HON. SECRETARY:—

Major A. J. Davis. (For re-election).

TREASURER:—

Lieut. S. L. Miller (For re-election).

DIRECTORS:—

Lieut. T. E. Burns. (For re-election).
Lt.-Col. C. W. Devey. (For re-election).
Capt. N. A. Campbell. (For re-election).
Lieut. R. Jackson. (For re-election)
Major K. B. Lockett.
Major A. W. Park.
Capt. D. C. Sinclair.

The report of the nominating committee, as above, had been presented to the directors, who recommended it in its entirety for adoption.

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APPOINTMENT:—

The directors recommended the appointment of the following:—

HON. CHAPLAIN—Hon. Major the Rev. G. W. Kerby.

HON. LIBRARIAN—Capt W. P. Taylor.

It was moved by Col D. G. L. Cunningham, seconded by Major H. H. Johnson, that the slate of Officers, as recommended by the directors, for 1937, be elected and appointed. Carried.

Vote of Thanks to Lt.-Col. Pryde

It was moved by Lt.-Col. D. Ritchie, seconded by Major J. W. Littleton, and unanimously carried, that a vote of thanks be extended to Lt.-Col. Pryde and the directorate, for their excellent leadership during 1936

Lt.-Col. Pryde then invited Lt.-Col. Dingle to take the chair, wishing him every success, and asked the members to continue to give the same co-operation and support to the incoming President and directors, which they had so readily given in the past

Lt.-Col. Dingle then took the Chair.

The Meeting concluded at 9.50 p.m.

APPENDIX "A"

PRESIDENT'S REPORT

Brigadier Spry and Gentlemen:

It is my pleasant duty tonight to present a report on the activities of the Institute for the year 1936. As you know, the first nine months of the year, the Services were in mourning for His Most Gracious Majesty, the late King George the Fifth. Your directors, therefore, decided that no large formal function should be held during that period, although many opportunities presented themselves.

Membership

In comparison with previous years, it is pleasing to note that the membership of the Institute has been well maintained, which proves that your organization is not only in a good condition, but is fulfilling the mission you intended it for when you created it. Thirty-two members have been struck off the strength this year while new members totalled seventeen. There are four life members, three honorary members, three hundred and nineteen resident members and one hundred and forty-nine non-resident, and twenty-five forming the Red

Deer branch, making a total of five hundred; a decrease of twenty-four from last year.

Deaths

It is with deep regret that we record the death of so many well-known members of our Institute. Col. James Walker, V.D., one of our patrons; Lt-Col A. G. Woolley-Dod, for many years an active figure in the military affairs of the city; the Hon. William Egbert, at one time Lieutenant-Governor of the Province, passed away during the year. Major A. N. Martin, a Past President, and Major F. C. Powell, M.C., D.C.M., were gentlemen well known to all of us for their many helpful contributions to the welfare of this Institute. Major W. B. Price, Capt. H. G. Kennedy, Capt. J. W. Smith, and Lieut. T. M. Burns, all deeply interested members, died during the past year.

Departures and Arrivals

Several changes took place in the Permanent Force in this District in 1936. Major J. D. Pitman, D.S.O., retired; Major J. A. Murray, R.C.A.M.C., moved to another District; Lieut. E. Hulbert, R.C.S., moved to Camp Borden. We welcome the new arrivals, Capt. E. H. Parsons, R.C.O.C.; Major J. E. Hunter, R.C.A.M.C.; Capt. T. C. Thompson, M.C., Royal Signals (England); Capt. R. Richmond, M.C., L.S.H. (R.C.), and others.

Meetings

There were fourteen General Meetings held in 1936, addressed by some very distinguished soldiers, explorers, and gentlemen who have travelled in many countries. We would not do justice to these gentlemen or to the Institute unless we worded the full program in this report. It is as follows:—

Capt. A. E. White, M.C.—“Russia and Some Personal Experiences”.

Hon. Lt.-Col. J. H. Woods, C.M.G.—“The League of Nations”.

Col. G. R. Pearkes, V.C., D.S.O., M.C.—“The Trend of Army Organization”.

Gen. Sir Edmund Ironside, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O.—“The Mediterranean Situation”.

Lt.-Col. C. W. Devey—“The British Soldier”.

Eng. Comm. A. D. Currie—“The Evolution of the Warship”.

Air Comm. H. Hollick-Kenyon—“With Ellsworth in the Antarctic” and “The Importance of Air Transportation”.

Major G. H. A. McMillan, M.C.—“Co-operation”.

Capt. E. Melville Dover—“Ceylon”.

Capt. Alan Innes-Taylor—“Antartica, the Unknown”.

Col. H. D. G. Crerar, D.S.O.—“Confidential”.

Lieut. H. G. Scott—“The Story of Russia and Germany”.

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Major-Gen. the Hon. W. A. Griesbach, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., V.D.
—"The Maintenance of Neutrality in Relation to National Defence".

Hon. Major the Rev. Canon S. H. Middleton—"The Genesis and Legends of the Blackfoot Indians".

All of these meetings were largely attended, ranging from 60 to 300, or an average of 110 per meeting throughout the year. This support of the primary objects of the Institute is very gratifying to your directors. It is quite obvious, however, all of these lectures cannot be published in our annual Journal, but it is hoped a resume of most of them will be printed, if space is available.

To these distinguished gentlemen who favored us with their extremely interesting addresses, the members of the A.M.I. are deeply grateful. Some of the speakers came long distances at considerable inconvenience to themselves to address the Institute. Your directors, therefore, arranged several informal dinners in their honor, and we wish to thank the many senior officers in the District for their co-operation on those occasions.

Visit of the Minister of National Defence and C.G.S.

Hon. Ian A. Mackenzie, Minister of National Defence, and Major-Gen. E. C. Ashton, C.B., C.M.G., V.D., were visitors to the city in the early fall, but both regretted their inability to address the Institute at that time. Through the courtesy of the President of the Garrison Mess, Major V. R. Jones, however, your directors had the honor and pleasure of meeting those distinguished gentlemen.

Vimy Dinner

At a general meeting, it was decided, on account of Court Mourning for His Majesty, the late King George the Fifth, to cancel the annual Vimy Dinner. An ordinary meeting was held in the Garrison Officers' Mess on this anniversary and an interesting address was given by Lt.-Col. C. W. Devey, the subject being "The British Soldier".

Luncheon to His Excellency, Baron Tweedsmuir, Governor-General

In honor of His Excellency, Baron Tweedsmuir, Governor-General of Canada, the Alberta Military Institute, tendered a luncheon at the Palliser Hotel on September 3rd. Two hundred and eighty-three members and friends attended. After the luncheon His Excellency graciously received the guests.

Armistice Ball

The annual Armistice Ball sponsored by the Institute was held in the Palliser Hotel on 11th November, 1936. The attendance was disappointing to your directors, and there was a financial loss of \$42.60. It is pointed out, however, there were more members of the Institute present than the invited general public. In all other respects the ball was a successful event.

The Cadet Corps

We regret to report the resignation of the Instructor of the Cadet Corps, Lieut. H. C. Neal, who was responsible for the high standard of efficiency of the unit for the past few years. It is gratifying to note, however, that Lieut. H. Ward, who has also been long associated with the Corps, has taken over the responsibility temporarily. For his enthusiastic interest in the Cadets at all times, we are greatly indebted to Brig. D. W. B. Spry, O.B.E., V.D. We wish to thank Capt. Harold E. Wright, chairman of the committee, Major L. W. Miller, D.S.O., and the Permanent Force instructors, all of whom have contributed liberally of their time to the welfare of the unit.

C. O. T. C.

The \$75 authorized by the last general meeting for scholarships in the C.O.T.C. were awarded as follows:—

“B” Certificate, \$50—C.M.S. B. E. Hurdle, Edmonton

“A” Certificate, \$25—Cadet H. J. Bishop, Edmonton.

According to the Officer Commanding, Lt.-Col. Strickland, these scholarships are of great value to the C.O.T.C. Enquiries from time to time, made by this Institute, have elicited the information that all winners of these scholarships, with one exception, have eventually taken out commissions in the Canadian Militia.

Library

Several new volumes have been added to the library this year. We are grateful to Col. J. N. Gunn, D.S.O., V.D., and C. P. McQueen, Esq., for their recent donation of books to the shelves of the library. Capt. W. P. Taylor has again served you as librarian this year in his usual methodical and efficient style, and no doubt you will show your appreciation when his report is presented.

Garrison Officers' Mess

The system of A.M.I. contributions to the Garrison Officers' Mess, inaugurated last year, was continued with mutually satisfactory results during 1936. We wish to express our appreciation to the President of the mess and his committee for their co-operation with this organization during the year.

Annual Journal

The task of editing our annual Journal is not an easy one. We are fortunate, however, to have such an experienced newspaper man as Major A. C. Ballantine to rely upon, and we are grateful for all his past services. It is important to note the production of this Journal would become prohibitive if it were not for the loyal support of the many business firms who advertise in it. Lieut. Miles H. Robinson, advertising manager, deserves much credit this year for coming so close to balancing his advertising receipts against the total production costs.

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Grants

A grant of \$25 was made to the Canadian Red Cross Society this year, which was duly authorized by a general meeting.

A grant of \$50 was also made to the Alberta Provincial Rifle Association, and a match was put on their programme called the "Alberta Military Institute Match". While the general meeting of August 26th authorized this grant, it was recommended that the directors appoint a committee to go into this matter more thoroughly in the future, so that the Militia units may become more interested and more actively participate in this shoot. It is suggested the new board consider this question early in the year.

The Canadian Club

.... In honour of Sir Edmund Ironside, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., the Canadian Club tendered a luncheon. Members of the A.M.I., being invited, attended in gratifying numbers. It was through the courtesy of the Club that the A.M.I. were privileged to hear one of their popular speakers, Lieut. H. G. Scott. We, therefore, extend our grateful thanks to the officers and members of the Canadian Club for their help and consideration on those occasions.

Financial Statement

The financial statement was issued and, according to by-laws, has been in your hands for some time, and no doubt you will be pleased to notice that the financial affairs of your organization are in a sound condition. The total surplus on the operations of the Institute for the year amounts to \$85.80, of which \$54.08 is transferred to Interest Reserve and the balance of \$31 to surplus account.

As trustees of your money, the directors have been much concerned and reviewed the investments of the Institute several times during the year with special regard to Alberta Government securities. They decided this year that the interest coupons should not be presented on account of the reduced rate and that the bonds should not be sold at a price which would incur a loss to the capital structure of the organization. In coming to these decisions, your directors consulted bond houses and other people in close touch with financial affairs. It is suggested that the incoming board should again review these investments in a similar manner.

This Institute owes much to the Treasurer, Mr. S. L. Miller, for his careful handling of the finances and his cheerful willingness at all times to assist the directors in matters pertaining to the general good and welfare of the organization. We are very grateful for this co-operation and the service rendered by Mr. Miller, whose report will be given later.

The auditing of the books was done by Lieut. F. J. Butler, and his report will be given later. We are appreciative of this officer's long service to the Institute in this capacity.

May we also take the opportunity of expressing our very sincere thanks to Brig. D. W. B. Spry, O.B.E., V.D., and his Staff at District

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Headquarters, for their co-operation in all matters submitted to them from time to time by the Institute. As one of the prime movers in the formation of this Institute and his continued enthusiastic interest in its affairs, we owe much to our popular Brigadier.

The officers and directors of the Institute have all shown a great interest in the conduct of the affairs of your organization during 1936. We have had the privilege of drawing your attention to the fine work of your treasurer, Mr. S. L. Miller. We also wish to commend the services of our secretary, Major A. J. Davis, along with his assistant, Sergt. F. A. Mercer, of H.Q. Staff, for their careful recording of the activities of the organization.

Garrison Theatre Night

Through the courtesy of Mr. Egan, manager of The Palace Theatre, members of the Garrison were enabled to see the picture "The Charge of the Light Brigade". We are indebted to Mr. Egan for the arrangements which he so kindly made.

Branches

While the Red Deer branch is small in numbers, it is doing good work. Their annual report will be submitted to you later. Lt.-Col. Devey delivered an address at one of their meetings in the early part of the year.

General

Your directors were represented at the annual Decoration Day services organized by the Canadian Legion. They were also present in the party who welcomed His Excellency, Baron Tweedsmuir, the Governor-General, to Calgary during his recent tour.

Gentlemen, I now wish to pay my personal tribute to two directors who have completed their two year term of office and who have worked very hard during the year. I hope you will be able to persuade Lt.-Col. Cooper-Johnston, M.C., V.D., and Capt. Harold Wright to again take office in the near future.

In conclusion, please allow me to say that I have enjoyed the privilege of serving you for the past four years, first as a director, then as vice-president, and latterly as president for 1936. The honor you bestowed on me, when you elected me president of this Institute, is one which will be ever cherished in my most distant memories.

To Brigadier Spry and his Staff, to the officers and directors, and to the members generally, I am deeply appreciative of the sincere co-operation I have received from you all, and any successes which may have been achieved is attributable to that fine team work and to that alone.

I hope you will carry on with the same spirit of co-operation in 1937 so that my successor and his board may enjoy an even more prosperous and successful year than the one just completed. I thank you all.

Respectfully submitted,

H. PRYDE, Lt.-Col.

President.

ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE

Revenue Statement for Year Ending 31st December, 1936

RECEIPTS

Membership Dues	\$1,522.50
Grant—Department of National Defence	500.00
Interest	252.69

DISBURSEMENTS

Garrison Officers' Mess—		
Proportion of Current Resident Membership Dues ..	\$ 511.00	
Lectures, etc.—		
Refreshments for Evening Meetings ..	\$282.00	
Expenses of Speakers and Meetings ..	24.20	
		\$306.20
Armistice Ball	\$675.10	
LESS Receipts	632.50	
		42.60
New Year's Reception, 1936		39.67
Dinners and Luncheons	\$379.10	
LESS Receipts	340.00	
		39.10
		427.57
Alberta Military Institute Cadet Corps		224.63
Scholarships—University of Alberta C.O.T.C.		75.00
Grants—		
Alberta Prov. Rifle Association	\$ 50.00	
Red Cross Society for Christmas Fund at		
Belcher Hospital and Keith Sanatorium ..	25.00	
		75.00
Affiliated Branch—Red Deer		11.10
Annual JoJournal—1935:		
Cost of Printing, etc	\$480.28	
LESS Receipts for Advertisements	474.25	
		6.03
General Expenses—		
Clerical Help	\$350.00	
Circulars and Notices to Members	160.50	
Library	100.00	
Printing and Stationery	50.57	
Postage	44.10	
Wreaths	33.16	
Audit Fees	30.00	
Telegrams	21.73	
Gratuities	20.00	
Presentations	12.21	
Depreciation on Office Equipm't and Pictures ..	11.00	
Insurance	9.70	
Exchange, Revenue Stamps and Miscellaneous ..	16.09	
		859.06
Total Expenses for 1936 ..		\$2,189.39
Amount Transferred to Interest Reserve		54.03
Balance of Profit for Year Transferred to Surplus Account		31.77
		<u>\$2,275.19</u>
		<u>\$2,275.19</u>

Audited and found correct:

F. J. BUTLER, Lieut., Auditor.
Calgary, Alta., 6th January, 1937.

Certified correct:

S. L. MILLER, Treasurer.

ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE

BALANCE SHEET - 31ST DECEMBER, 1936

ASSETS

Cash—	
Bank Balance—Current Account	\$240.85
Bank Balance—Savings Account	24.92
Cash on Hand	31.00
Accrued Interest Receivable	\$ 296.77
Accounts Receivable	171.93
Bonds and Savings Certificate at Cost	24.00
Par Value	5,123.50
Market Value as at 31st December, 1936	4,524.00
Library	431.18
Office Equipment, Pictures, etc.	119.50
	<u>\$6,166.88</u>

Audited and found correct:
F. J. BUTLER, Lieut., Auditor.
Calgary, Alta., 6th January, 1937.

LIABILITIES

Prepaid Dues, 1937	\$ 15.00
Reserve for Interest as per Revenue Statement	54.03
SURPLUS—	
A.M.I. Balance as at 1st Jan., 1936	\$6,066.08
Profit for year 1936 as per Revenue Statement	31.77
Surplus as at 31st Dec., 1936	<u>6,097.85</u>

\$6,166.88

Certified correct:
S. L. MILLER, Treasurer.

"Canadian Defence Quarterly"

Issued in January, April, July and October.

Editorial and Publication Offices:
**WOODS BUILDING, SLATER STREET
OTTAWA, ONTARIO**

Subscription, \$1.50 per year.

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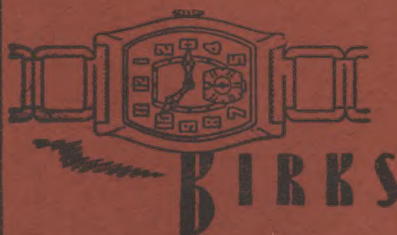
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